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Influencing Alcohol and Drug Policy: Political Participation and Its  
Predictors Among Addiction Professionals

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Influencing Alcohol and Drug Policy: Political Participation and Its  
Predictors Among Addiction Professionals

by

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## **Dedication**

This work is dedicated to everyone who advocates on behalf of the addicted.  
You are the bravest souls on earth. Your passion and your commitment make the  
world a better place for us all.

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# Influencing Alcohol and Drug Policy: Political Participation and Its Predictors Among Addiction Professionals

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This study aimed to identify the type, extent, and predictors of civic and political participation among addiction professionals. A sample of 633 addiction professionals participated in an online survey using the Citizen Participation Study's survey instrument. Twenty-two political activities were measured as well as three predictors of political participation: resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks. Political participation and predictors of participation were analyzed for the full sample and compared among subgroups--social workers vs. those who were not social workers; those who reported they were recovering from alcohol and other drug (AOD) addiction vs. those who were not recovering; and those who held a professional addiction certification vs. those who were not certified and those who were certified plus held other professional credentials.

The mean political participation index for participants who were not certified was significantly lower than for participants with a certification and those with a certification plus other professional credentials. No significant difference was noted in the mean political participation index for recovering participants and



those not recovering from AOD addiction; and social workers and participants who were not social workers.

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the influence of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks on political participation while controlling for recovery status, professional credentials, age, race, and gender. Resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks were all significant predictors of political participation. Recruitment networks was the strongest predictor for the full sample and for subgroups who were not social workers, certified, not certified, certified with other professional credentials, and not recovering from AOD addiction. Psychological engagement was the strongest predictor of political participation among individuals recovering from AOD addiction and social workers. However, the validation analysis did not replicate the findings for social workers, those not recovering from AOD addiction, and those who were certified.

The significant role of recruitment networks in political participation has important implications for social workers and others interested in mobilizing addiction professionals for political participation. Recommendations for further research include the need to develop valid and reliable measures of political participation that capture civic activities and the use of technology.

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## **Chapter 1**

### **Problem Statement**

#### *Study Background*

The fight for the rights of those addicted to alcohol and other drugs (AOD) and for fair and effective alcohol and drug policy is not new. It has been an ongoing mission of several organizations for many years. What may be different now is a growing awareness among people in many sectors of society—both governmental and nongovernmental—that alcohol and drug problems are exacting a terrific human and financial toll; yet, government officials have been slow to move alcohol and drug policy from its current criminal justice perspective to a public health concern. Few professionals recognize this more than those who work in the addiction field.

The awareness of the fiscal and social impact of alcohol and drug addiction is evident in the emerging initiatives of many nongovernmental organizations to shift public policy on alcohol and drugs from a criminal justice perspective to a public health concern. Yet little is known about the participation of members of the helping professions, such as addiction professionals and social workers, in efforts to shape these policies. While there is documentation of social workers' political participation, there is no empirical evidence of addiction professionals' political participation, nor is there research on their interest in and efforts to influence alcohol and other drug policy. The literature on the addiction treatment profession has primarily focused on the evolution of the profession and

its contribution to treatment effectiveness (Mustaine, West, & Wyrick, 2003; Najavits, Crits-Christoph, & Dierberger, 2000; Stoeffelmayr, Mavis, Sherry, & Chiu, 1999; Toriello & Leierer, 2005). For the most part, the nature and extent of the addiction professionals' political participation, their interest in and knowledge of politics, and their perceived competency in their ability to participate in political activities has not been studied. Research into alcohol and other drug professionals' political participation would be useful to NAADAC, the Association of Addiction Professionals (NAAADAC) and nongovernmental organizations that are attempting to develop a base of support among individuals recovering from addiction and those effected by failures of existing AOD policy. This research is an initial attempt to study the extent of addiction professionals' political participation and the factors that promote this participation in an effort to promote sound alcohol and drug policy.

According to findings from the 2007 National Household Survey on Drug Use and Health (Substance Abuse & Mental Health Service Administration (SAMHSA), 2008), 23.2 million individuals aged 12 and older (9.4% of the population ages 12 and older) needed AOD treatment. Of these, 2.4 million or 10% received treatment, estimates which are similar to the findings from the 2006 (SAMHSA, 2008). This statistic alone speaks to one of the failures of existing AOD policy and demonstrates why access to treatment has been a primary focus of current policy initiatives. AOD addiction affects people of all socioeconomic and racial/ethnic groups; it impacts families, the economy, and



society in general. Alcohol and other drug addiction has often been viewed as a lifestyle issue, reflecting the belief that addicted populations are not victims but active participants whose personal choices have resulted in serious consequences. This public perception led to the development of state and federal policy grounded in criminal justice methods. The overriding goal has been to discourage illicit drug use through criminal justice methods such as strict sentencing guidelines, mandatory minimum sentences, and “third strike” laws. The limited funding for treatment for individuals addicted to AOD further reflects the commitment to existing policy despite its limited effectiveness.

An abundance of criticism points out the failures of the existing public policy approaches to addiction (Join Together, 2008a; Join Together, 2008c; McNeece & DiNitto, 2005; Van Wormer & Davis, 2003). Indeed, the mayors of America’s largest cities unanimously approved a resolution stating that the war on drugs had failed and called for reform of federal sentencing guidelines and spending, and a change in priorities that focuses on a harm reduction approach (Join Together, 2007). The resolution goes on to say that “This conference recognizes that addiction is a chronic medical illness that is treatable, and drug treatment success rates exceed those of many cancer therapies” (Join Together, 2007). Data from a 2005 task force report from Oklahoma estimates the total cost of AOD addiction in that state at \$5.8 billion, more than the entire cost of running the state government (Join Together, 2008a). The Marin Institute reports that the direct and indirect cost of alcohol related problems alone in California are \$38

billion per year, exceeding the economic losses of earthquakes and fires. The Marin Institute estimated that there are 100 incidents of alcohol related harm per hour, one death per hour, and social costs of \$1,000 per resident, per year (Join Together, 2008a). Treatment can substantially lower the costs. A widely cited study shows that for every dollar spent on treatment, \$12 is saved in health, social service, and criminal justice costs (National Institute of Drug Abuse, 2007). However, the 2008 federal budget request for what has become known as the “war on drugs” was \$12.9 billion, reflecting a trend of annual reductions since 2003 (Office of National Drug Control Policy, 2007). Of the 2008 budget, approximately 35% was allocated for alcohol and other drug prevention, treatment, and research (Office of National Drug Control Policy, 2008). According to some budget analysts, “Since FY02, the budget has emphasized what research has shown to be the least effective ingredients of a federal drug-control policy,” describing this period as almost a decade of lost opportunities in achieving performance results (Join Together, 2008b).

Legislation regarding illegal drugs varies at the state level depending on the state’s political climate and citizens’ initiatives. The federal emphasis on criminal justice methods has resulted in the incarceration of more than 2 million individuals in the United States (McNeece, 2003). Increasingly, however, states are reforming drug laws and implementing innovative drug programs to defer prosecution, drug courts which tend to defer sentencing, and mental health courts which provide treatment, to offset the sheer volume of offenders

populating jails and prisons. The increased number of drug courts and other innovative diversion programs indicate growing awareness of the need to find more effective solutions to the jail and prison overpopulation (National Criminal Justice Reference Service, 2004b). The relationship between AOD use and incarceration rates reinforces the need for increasing the level availability of treatment in the community and in the criminal justice system and advocating on behalf of those who are addicted (Drug Policy Alliance, 2004b; Join Together, 2007).

#### *Implications of Existing Policy*

There is an abundance of literature documenting the ineffectiveness of a zero tolerance approach to drug use that fails to provide treatment to those in need combined with structural inequities that disproportionately effect members of particular racial or ethnic groups. Approximately 7.1 million adults in the United States are under some form of criminal justices supervision (prison, jail, parole, probation) (Chandler, Fletcher, & Volkow, 2009). Of the more than 2 million people incarcerated in state and federal prisons in the United States, an estimated 60% to 70% are there for drug-related offenses (Drug Policy Alliance, 2002); however, an estimated 80%-85% of all prisoners who could benefit from drug treatment do not receive it (Chandler et al., 2009). Existing sentencing guidelines result in inconsistent and unfair penalties, which impact minorities more harshly (Drug Policy Alliance, 2002; Join Together, 2008F). Mandatory minimum sentencing, legislated in 1986 and 1988, requires that individuals with

even a minimal amount of certain drugs such as cocaine, crack, or methamphetamine be sentenced to a specific number of years in prison without the possibility of parole, with sentences for crack cocaine much harsher than for powdered cocaine. Recent legislation has reduced the mandatory sentencing guidelines, but there is significant opposition to making the reduced sentences retroactive to individuals incarcerated for minor offenses. Leading experts believe that “most of the current problems of the criminal justice system can be attributed, either directly or indirectly, to drugs” (McNeece & DiNitto, 2005, p. 247).

Existing AOD policies increase the likelihood that children in minority communities will grow up without a father, be involved with child welfare or family court, and grow up in poverty (Drug Policy Alliance, 2002). The trauma of premature separation from their parents, as well as the stigma of having an incarcerated parent, plays heavily on children’s emotional and psychological development and contributes to the fact that half of the 1.5 million youth with a parent in jail or prison will commit a crime before they turn eighteen (Drummond, 2000).

Studies reveal that children placed in foster care due to parental AOD abuse, as compared with children placed for other reasons, stay in out-of-home placements longer, move from one placement to another more frequently, are less likely to return home to their biological parents, and are less likely to be adopted (Besharov 1990; National Black Child Development Institute 1989;

Fanshel 1975; Feig 1990; Walker et al., 1991, cited in Tracy & Farkas, 1994, p. 58). More effective AOD policy that provides for access to treatment and support during early recovery would substantially benefit those who are addicted as well as their children.

Estimates of alcohol and other drug (AOD) use among males charged with assaulting their partners range from 22% to 39%, with drug use contributing to more frequent and more severe episodes of violence (Brown, Caplan, Werk, & Seraganian, 1999; Logan, Walker, Staton, & Leukefeld, 2001). Violence treatment programs report that 25% to 90% of perpetrators have AOD problems, with AOD users more likely to be repeat offenders (Logan et al., 2001).

Criminally-involved women mandated to AOD treatment are more likely to be victims of partner abuse, citing AOD use as a factor in the battering 60% of the time (Wilson-Cohn, Strauss, & Falkin, 2002). Researchers at the Center for Disease Control estimate that 58% of AIDS cases among women and 36% of the overall cases are linked to injection drug use or sex with partners who inject drugs (Drug Policy Alliance, 2004a). Since individuals are more likely to participate in high-risk sexual behavior while under the influence of AOD, treatment is considered a primary and secondary prevention tool for HIV (Reback, Larkins, & Shoptaw, 2004). Inadequate funding for addiction treatment has resulted in few programs for batterers or abused spouses that also offer treatment for AOD problems, and few chemical dependency treatment programs have adequate means to treat batterers or abused spouses.

Of the billions of tax dollars that local, state, and federal governments spend each year, treatment accounts for a very small percentage (McNeece, 2003). State governments bear most of the social and financial burdens of AOD addiction, spending an estimated 13% of their total budget on issues directly related to AOD addiction, with only an estimated 4% of this going to treatment or prevention (Rosenbloom, Garson Leis, Shah, & Amborgi, 2006). The current economic crisis has many states reevaluating their existing drug laws and looking for ways to more effectively address AOD addiction. Some advocates are optimistic that the country's economic crisis will provide the incentive to create the largest ever shift in correctional policy. While elected officials may have been uncomfortable focusing on public health policy over interdiction and public safety, the criminal justice costs associated with AOD provide the cover of cost saving (Join Together, 2009; truthout.org, 2009).

Alcohol and other drug addiction professionals have struggled to gain wide recognition of AOD addiction as illnesses; yet parity for third party reimbursement for treatment of those illnesses has not been achieved. Advocates were recently successful in lobbying Congress to pass legislation that mandates parity for treatment of mental health disorders commensurate with physical health problems. This bill requires group health plans that offer coverage for addiction and mental illness to provide benefits comparable to benefits for medical and surgical coverage (Faces & Voices of Recovery, 2008). But the bill does not mandate coverage for AOD disorders and could potentially be counterproductive

in that employers may choose to provide no coverage for mental health and alcohol and drug disorders in order to avoid providing parity. However, Congress included mental health parity when they passed House Resolution 2, SCHIP, which provides healthcare coverage for children from low-income families (Bazelon Center for Mental Health Law, 2009). Given the transgenerational prevalence of alcohol and drug addiction, this will allow for early intervention among youth affected by AOD addiction.

#### *Initiatives to Influence Alcohol and Other Drug Policy*

The *Blueprint for the States: Policies to Improve the Ways States Organize and Deliver Alcohol and Drug Prevention and Treatment*, developed in 2006 by a nonpartisan panel of state leaders (Rosenbloom et al., 2006), issued recommendations that call for: 1) stronger leadership at the highest state levels, 2) structure within state governments that allows the agency funding substance abuse treatment and prevention to report directly to the governor and work closely with legislators; 3) increased state funding for alcohol and other drug (AOD) treatment and prevention; 4) accountability of agencies and providers that requires them to report their outcomes and rewards those that exceed targets; 5) review of the impact of AOD legislation and agency policies and their impact on the education, employment, and rights of individuals recovering from AOD addiction; and 6) the creation and support of advisory councils and community coalitions, comprised of providers, consumers and advocates, with the authority

to hold elected officials accountable for providing the needed leadership to address constituents' AOD needs. While state leaders have been slow to implement all the recommendations, elements of the recommendations are gradually being adopted.

Citizens in many states are recognizing the social consequences of the federal approach and have moved to adopt more progressive drug laws which focus on treatment for those addicted to AOD (Piper, Briggs, Huffman, & Lubot-Conk, 2003). One highly publicized referendum is Proposition 36, which Californians passed in 2000. Proposition 36 allows nonviolent drug offenders to participate in treatment along with mandatory probation in lieu of jail. The criminal records of individuals who successfully complete probation are expunged, allowing them to state truthfully that they do not have a criminal record on employment applications (Marlowe, Elwork, Festinger, & McLellan, 2003). Similar initiatives have passed in Arizona, District of Columbia, Hawaii, Florida and Michigan (Marlowe et al., 2003). In November 2008, Californians unsuccessfully attempted to pass the Nonviolent Offender Rehabilitation Act (NORA), a measure that would have:

- Required the State to expand and increase funding and oversight for individualized treatment and rehabilitation programs for nonviolent drug offenders and parolees;



- Reduced criminal consequences for nonviolent drug offenses by mandating three-tiered probation with treatment and providing for case dismissal and/or sealing of records after probation;
- Limited the court's authority to incarcerate offenders who violate probation or parole;
- Shortened parole for most drug offenses, including sales, and for nonviolent property crimes;
- Created numerous divisions, boards, commissions and reporting requirements regarding drug treatment and rehabilitation;
- Changed certain marijuana misdemeanors to infractions. (Curley, 2008A)

The estimated cost of NORA was \$1 billion, which was expected to result in a \$3.5 billion savings in direct costs related to operating and building prisons. NORA's provisions would have reduced the use of drug courts, allowing nonviolent offenders and individuals with drug offenses to access treatment without entering the criminal justice system. This referendum generated substantial opposition from the law enforcement lobbyists and the union of prison workers, due to its progressive nature and concerns that the trend would have expanded to other states, similar to what occurred with Proposition 36 (Curley, 2008).

### *Nongovernmental Organizations Focused on Alcohol and Other Drug Policy*

Among non-governmental organizations (NGOs), several well-established nonprofit organizations are leading efforts to challenge existing AOD policy and organize a consumer base for advocacy. Key organizations involved in this effort include the Drug Policy Alliance (DPA), The Johnson Institute, the Legal Action Center (LAC), and Faces and Voices of Recovery (FAVoR). The DPA has been influential in monitoring legislative issues throughout the country, increasing public awareness and supporting research on AOD issues (DPA, 2005). DPA is working state by state to educate lawmakers on marijuana research and to promote making marijuana available for medicinal purposes. According to the DPA, medical marijuana is one of the most widely supported issues in drug policy reform. This initiative has led to growing support for the reform of marijuana laws to eliminate criminal sanctions for consumption-related offenses. As the public increasingly demands legal access to marijuana for both medicinal and other personal use, policymakers are being forced to consider how to regulate the drug. There is substantial research indicating that marijuana has medical value in the treatment of illnesses such as AIDS, glaucoma, cancer, multiple sclerosis, epilepsy and chronic pain (DPA, 2008b). In 1996 the DPA supported Proposition 215, California's Compassionate Use Act, which allows sick and dying patients to legally use marijuana for medicinal purposes. Fourteen other states followed suit and allow medical marijuana use and/or use for personal consumption. Since federal law preempts state law, the federal government has attempted to

undermine the states by raiding medical marijuana dispensaries in states where the drug is legal for medical purposes.

Marijuana arrests in the United States accounted for 43% of all the arrests for drug law violations in 2005, with over 88% of these arrests for marijuana possession alone (Benavie, 2009). A 1999 study estimated that approximately 60,000 individuals were in prison for marijuana offenses (Benavie, 2009). In 2000 state and local expenditures for enforcement of marijuana laws were estimated to be \$5 billion (Earlywine, 2007). The federal expenditure for 2002 is estimated at \$2.6 billion (Earlywine, 2007). Thousands of people are now in prison for marijuana offenses with even more punished with probation, fines, and civil sanctions, including having their property seized, their driver's license revoked, and their employment terminated. Despite these civil and criminal sanctions, marijuana continues to be readily available and widely used (Earlywine, 2007).

The Johnson Institute has a 40-year history of working toward awareness, intervention, treatment, and recovery from alcoholism and drug addiction. The Johnson Institute's mission is to "promote the power and possibility of recovery from alcoholism and other drug dependence through identification and elimination of barriers to recovery" (Johnson Institute, 2005a). The institute's current focus is mobilizing and training people in recovery for advocacy

campaigns, conducting policy research, and promoting congregational team ministries (Johnson Institute, 2005b).

The Legal Action Center's sole mission is to fight discrimination against people with histories of addiction, HIV/AIDS, or criminal records, and advocate for sound public policies in these areas (LAC, 2005). LAC works to combat the stigma and prejudice that keeps individuals with histories of addiction, HIV/AIDS, or criminal records out of society's mainstream and focuses on eliminating structural barriers to employment, housing, social services, and privacy. In addition to legal support for individuals, LAC provides public policy advocacy, research, training, and technical assistance to service providers, government agencies, and policy makers (LAC, 2005).

Faces and Voices of Recovery (FAVoR) is a nonprofit organization working to mobilize, organize, and rally individuals in recovery from AOD addiction, as well as friends and family members, in a campaign to end discrimination, broaden social understanding, and reframe addiction as a public health crisis. FAVoR provides information to local, state, and national lawmakers, supports efforts to shape media coverage, and encourages recovering individuals to speak out publicly (Faces and Voices of Recovery, 2006). It promotes advocacy throughout the country through its monthly newsletter and extensive Website, which publicizes state and local initiatives and national summits designed to bring advocates together. FAVoR is the first

successful effort to collectively organize recovering individuals as a base of political support nationally.

Collectively, these NGOs along with consumer advocates have contributed significantly to public awareness of the institutional barriers and funding issues that fail to effectively address AOD addiction. The need for increased funding for treatment is a number one priority across these initiatives. These NGOs also recognize the need to develop a grassroots base of support with a collective voice that can maintain the political pressure necessary to shift the policy focus of AOD addiction from a criminal justice perspective to a public health concern and increase its priority on the political agenda.

#### *The Addiction Professionals' Commitment to Social Justice and Political Participation*

State and federal alcohol and other drug policies directly impact frontline addiction treatment counselors and the populations they serve. These frontline workers have a vested interest, as a profession dedicated to reducing AOD problems, and for broad ethical reasons, to participate in efforts to influence AOD policy and support NGOs' efforts to shift the policies from a criminal justice perspective to a public health concern. Yet no research has documented their participation in traditional political activities or AOD specific advocacy initiatives, their interest in the initiatives of NGOs to influence AOD policy, or their sense of efficacy in doing so.

NAADAC, the Association for Addiction Professionals, is the largest professional organization for addiction counselors and other addiction health care professionals who specialize in addiction prevention, treatment, and education. Founded in 1972, NAADAC was created to represent the interests of alcohol and other drug professionals but has expanded its focus to include tobacco, gambling, and other addiction professionals (NAADAC, 2007b). NAADAC's mission is to "lead, unify, and empower addiction focused professionals to achieve excellence through education, advocacy, knowledge, standards of practice, ethics, professional development and research" (NAADAC, 2007b). NAADAC members were selected for participation in this study because it is a national organization with uniform certification standards and members in 46 states. NAADAC's membership includes individuals from a wide range of helping professions including nurses, social workers, psychologists, psychiatrists, physicians, counselors, and clergy.

NAADAC has created an extensive network of committees and opportunities for its members to participate in the political process. Through its Government Relations and Public Policy Departments, NAADAC supports continued research and advocates for policies that improve the understanding of and financial support for prevention and treatment of addiction (NAADAC, 2007d). NAADAC developed *The Guide to Addiction Policy* to educate its membership about advocacy and public policy issues affecting the profession and the populations it serves (NAADAC, 2007c). NAADAC hosts a three-day

conference on addiction advocacy annually, focusing on building advocacy skills and educating members on key issues such as national funding, discriminatory policies, international drug control policy, health care needs of individuals with AOD issues, and the development of a proposed federal addiction recovery policy agenda (NAADAC, 2007a).

### *Study Purpose*

The goals of this study are two fold. One is to contribute to the knowledge development about addiction professionals' political participation and factors that influence their political participation. The other is to make practical recommendations to organizations working to mobilize political participation by providing empirical data to identify predictors of political participation among addiction professionals. Verba, Schlozman, and Brady's (1995) Civic Voluntarism Model postulates that political participation can be predicted by three factors: resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks. This model will be used to determine the extent to which these factors predict the political participation of addiction professionals and groups within the addiction profession based on recovery status, certification, and degree field.

The literature on political participation consistently shows that education is a predictor of political participation. Since the lowest level of addiction certification can be obtained with minimal educational attainment, members may have a range of educational levels. The addiction treatment field is a relatively new profession compared to social work and as such may not have instilled in

professionals the same level of commitment to advocacy, preparation to participate in the political process, or support for their professional associations. Recent literature reports that political activity is significantly different even between those with bachelor's degrees and advanced degrees (Ritter, 2006). Although social workers are commonly licensed at the bachelor's and master's level, most professional licenses such as Marriage and Family Therapist or Licensed Professional Counselor require a master's degree. NAADAC's membership includes individuals with varying educational levels, who come from a variety of professional fields and with various certifications and other professional credentials, thereby allowing for comparisons among several subgroups of members.

#### *Addiction Professionals Recovering from AOD Addiction*

Of particular interest in this study is the subgroup of addiction professionals who are recovering from alcohol and other drug (AOD) addiction. Research on individuals in recovery has primarily focused on early recovery and pathways that allowed them to achieve recovery. Little is known about the millions of individuals in recovery from addiction that are productive members of society and are politically active. Additional research is needed to understand the population of individuals in long-term recovery from addiction, their civic and political involvement, their willingness to support efforts to influence alcohol and drug policy, and avenues to reach this population. This study will provide nongovernmental organizations that are attempting to mobilize individuals



recovering from addiction--who are often anonymous--with empirical data to guide their strategy development.

It should be noted that both the terms “addiction” and “recovery” can be controversial. As compulsive behaviors such as gambling, sex, and overeating become recognized within society, the tendency has been to categorize them as addictions though others feel the terminology is being used imprecisely. Defining when individuals are in recovery from AOD addiction is also highly subjective and has historically been influenced by 12 Step fellowships that define recovery as total abstinence. The Betty Ford Institute recently convened a panel that proposed that addiction recovery be defined as “a voluntarily maintained lifestyle characterized by sobriety, personal health, and citizenship” (Join Together, 2007A). There are many paths to recovery from AOD addiction, and total abstinence is not always necessary to live a productive life. For the purpose of this study, the term addiction will utilize the categories identified by NAADAC for certification (alcohol, drugs, nicotine, and gambling) and will only focus on efforts to influence alcohol and other drug policy. Recovery will not be defined in the survey instrument but will rely on the participants’ perception of whether or not they self identify as recovering from AOD addiction.

The presence of recovering individuals within the addiction profession has been well documented (Hser, 1995; Meier, Donmall, Varrowclough, McElduff, & Heller, 2005; Mustaine, West, & Wyrick, 2003; Najavits, Crits-Christoph, & Dierberger, 2000; Stoeffelmayr, Mavis, Sherry, & Chiu, 1999; Toriello & Leierer,

2005; Toriello & Leierer, 2004). A 1995 survey of the NAADAC membership found that 58% were in recovery from AOD addiction (Doyle, 1997). Twelve Step fellowships have strongly influenced addiction treatment, and participation in 12 Step fellowships remains an element of many programs. Service to others who are struggling with addiction is strongly recommended within 12 Step fellowships and may have contributed to the substantial presence of recovering individuals working in the AOD treatment field.

Due to the lack of research on the civic and political participation of individuals recovering from AOD addiction, it is unclear whether the emphasis on service carries over to civic and political activities that are not directly recovery oriented. While the culture of service may encourage counselors who are recovering from AOD addiction to be politically active, other traditions within the fellowships may diminish political participation. Twelve Step fellowships have traditions that clearly state they have no affiliations with outside organizations, nor do they express opinions on outside issues. Individual participation would not violate either of the traditions; however, members sometimes confuse the restrictions of the fellowship as a whole with what is appropriate for individual behavior. It is unclear if individuals who are recovering from AOD addiction may be more politically active in the area of AOD policy than they are in other areas due to their identification with the issue. This and the culture of service to others who are addicted through 12 Step recovery programs led the researcher to

control for recovery status in the multivariate analyses conducted in this study and also to compare political participation based on recovery status.

Professional organizations have a long-standing tradition of advocacy on behalf of their members, and members often have a long-standing tradition of advocacy on behalf of their clients. Professional organizations often serve as a public voice for the clients their members serve. Many of these clients lack access to political institutions or do not have the knowledge or skills to participate in the political process (Leroux, 2007). As such, addiction professionals, especially those in recovery from AOD addiction, are in a prime position to utilize their collective voice to take advantage of political opportunities to support initiatives to influence AOD policies.

#### *Social Work in the Addiction Profession*

It is well documented that social workers, directly or indirectly, address AOD addiction on a daily basis in agencies focused on child welfare, domestic violence, HIV/AIDS, mental health, and criminal justice, in particular (Van Wormer & Davis, 2003). A survey of 2,000 members of the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) found that 71% had taken one or more actions relating to clients with AOD addiction in the past year (O'Neil, 2001). The same study found that only 8% of the social workers held some type of substance abuse certification. The social work profession could add substantial resources and strong alliances that would be useful in any effort to influence AOD policy. This study will bring to light addictions professionals' efforts to influence AOD

policy, including the presence of social workers in the addictions field, their political participation, and their efforts to influence AOD policy.

There is a growing support for strengthening educational approaches to policy work within social work education which might include lobbying, organizing, participation in political campaigns, and learning how to effectively influence the development, implementation, and evaluation of social policy and legislation (Haynes & Mickelson, 1997; Keller, Whitaker, & Burke, 2001; Ritter, 2006). The Council on Social Work Education's 2008 Curriculum Policy Statements (CSWE) for bachelor's and master's level programs states:

Social work practitioners engage in policy practice to advance social and economic well-being and to deliver effective social work services. Social work practitioners understand that policy affects service delivery, and they actively engage in policy practice. Social workers know the history and current structures of social policies and services; the role of policy in service delivery; and the role of practice in policy development. Social workers analyze, formulate, and advocate for policies that advance social well-being; and collaborate with colleagues and clients for effective policy action. (CSWE, 2008, p. 6)

Social work educators have the opportunity to instill in students that political action is a normative behavior within the profession and begin to diminish lack of engagement in the political process. In a recent study, Ritter (2006) found that the majority of social workers were interested in politics but

almost half of the respondents did not feel their education adequately prepared them to participate in the political system. Ritter (2006) emphasizes the need to reinforce the importance of working toward social change since almost two-thirds of respondents favored working with individuals over working on societal change. Social workers must be adequately prepared to participate and engage in the political process effectively. To do this they must acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to feel competent. Wolk and Pray (1996) state that, "Like any social work endeavor, political activity requires commitment, expertise, and training to be successful" (p. 91). Not only do social workers need to be prepared for policy work, they need to understand the full implications of not engaging in the political process.

#### *Significance of the Study*

Alcohol and other drug (AOD) addiction is clearly one of the leading social issues facing society, yet the research community has given minimal attention to efforts to create state and federal policies that more effectively address the issue. This study will begin to document interest in and support for efforts to influence alcohol and drug policy by those who work most closely with individuals affected by AOD addiction--addiction treatment professionals. It will also begin to document the specific political activities in which addiction professionals participate and whether those activities, or their overall political participation, differs by subsets of addiction professionals, specifically those who are in recovery from AOD addiction versus those who are not, those who are social

workers versus those who are not, and members that are NAADAC certified, members who are not NAADAC certified, and members who are NAADAC certified and hold other professional credentials.

This information may be especially useful to organizations such as NAADAC, Faces and Voices of Recovery, the Drug Policy Alliance, and the Legal Action Center. Organizations working to mobilize political participation need empirical findings to guide their strategies and allow them to utilize the most cost effective avenues for organizing. They need to be aware of factors that influence specific political behavior among various professional fields, civic groups that might provide the maximum opportunity to engage potential supporters, and the avenues most likely to provide access to individuals recovering from AOD addiction in order to increase their political activity.

This study will also provide an indicator of social workers' presence in efforts to influence AOD policy and their confidence in their ability to do so effectively. It will give educators insight into the areas where the social work curriculum needs enhancement by identifying areas where social workers need additional motivation, political activities in which they are most inclined to participate, and factors that influence their participation in policy work. Ritter (2006) raises some important questions facing the social work profession such as the appropriate role of social workers in political activity and social change; whether the values of the middle class or majority culture lean toward

preservation of the status quo rather than social change; and how political the social work profession should be.

In the area of alcohol and drug policy, all of these questions are relevant since the issue has historically had such a strong moral stigma. Given the overwhelming documentation of the fiscal impact of society's failure to treat individuals with alcohol and drug addiction, one could argue that shifting alcohol and drug policy from a criminal justice perspective to a public health concern would financially benefit all members of society, not just those who are poor or disenfranchised.

Based on these goals, the study will address the following research questions:

- 1) In what civic and political activities do NADAAC members participate and what is the extent of their participation in these activities?
  - 1a.) Is there a difference in the civic and political participation of NAADAC members who report they are recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction and those who report they are not recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction?
  - 1 b) Is there a difference in the civic and political activity of NAADAC members who possess professional credentials in addition to NAADAC certification, members with NAADAC certification but no other professional credentials, and members with no certification?

1 c) Is there a difference in the civic and political participation of NAADAC members who are social workers and those who are not social workers?

2) Do resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks predict political participation among NAADAC members?

2a.) How do resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks compare in their influence on NAADAC members' political participation?

2b) Are there differences in the influence of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks in predicting political participation among NAADAC members who report they are recovering from alcohol and/or other drug addiction and NAADAC members who report they are not recovering from alcohol and/or other drug addiction?

2c) Are there differences in the influence of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks in predicting political participation among NAADAC members who are social workers and those who are not social workers?

2d) Are there differences in the influence of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks in predicting political participation among NAADAC members who possess professional credentials in addition to NAADAC certification, members with NAADAC certification but no other professional credentials, and members with no certification?



## **Chapter 2**

### **Literature Review**

This chapter begins with a definition of political participation followed by an overview of the primary theories of political participation. The conceptual model used in this study is introduced along with a discussion of the Civic Voluntarism Model (Verba et al, 1995) and the predictors of political participation. Literature on the influence of age and gender on political participation, cultural influences on political participation, collective behavior, the political participation of social workers and the counseling profession, and the political participation of individuals with mental illness is also presented.

#### *Defining Political Participation*

Political participation is a common term in political science; however, there are many definitions of the term. Verba et al. (1995) define voluntary political participation as activity that is undertaken without threat of coercion or promise of financial compensation and has the intent or effect of influencing government action, either directly by affecting the making or implementation of public policy, or indirectly by influencing the selection of people who make those policies. Political activities that fall within this definition include voting, campaign activity, contacting public officials, protests, membership on a local board, affiliation with political organizations, and informal community work.

Putnam (2000) and Schudson (1998) define political participation more broadly and would say that all forms of civic engagement are political

participation. Bergstrom (2006) states there are two ways to define the breadth of political participation: the first is the type of tools and/or actions involved (e.g., voting, membership in a neighborhood association, campaign activity, volunteering in a social service agency) and the second concerns the target of the action (e.g., government, school board, social service agency). Based on Bergstrom's (2006) conception, Verba et al.'s (1995) definition would be considered narrow since the action is directed only at governments and the activities identified as political are more traditional such as voting. Taking the broader position, Putnam and Schudson argue that activities reflecting civic involvement are inherently political and that civic involvement directly impacts the values, issues, trends, and relations of society (Putnam, 2000; Schudson, 1998).

#### *Theories of Political Participation*

The Social Capital Theory of political participation contends that the degree of social capital explains an individual or group's political participation. The core idea of "social capital" is that social networks have value (Putnam, 2000). Putnam (2000) describes social capital as the connections between individuals within networks, which create normative values associated with civic engagement. The power and potential of social capital emerges from the productivity and richness of life that creates dense social connections or networks. Community engagement fosters norms such as mutual obligation or reciprocity and personal responsibility for action. Putnam (2000) stresses that society as a whole benefits socially and economically from individuals'

connectedness within networks. Putnam notes that not all social capital creates a positive consequence and points out the distinction between “bonding” (or exclusive) and “bridging” (or inclusive) social capital. Briggs (1998) differentiates the two by describing bonding social capital as good for “getting by,” while bridging social capital is crucial for “getting ahead” (Briggs, 1998). Bonding social capital creates strong connections within a group, and is used for strengthening organizational structure and mobilizing solidarity. Examples of bonding networks include ethnic fraternal organizations, country clubs, and professional associations that build on a common bond and may or may not support the interest of the broader community. Bridging networks generate broader identities by linking organizations or causes, such as the civil rights movement, and diffusing information. These organizations often consist of a network of individuals or groups that choose to work on issues that bridge social groups such as bonding groups working to support breast cancer research. Bonding and bridging dimensions are not mutually exclusive since bonding social groups may also bridge across social issues.

Putnam (2000) argues that what sustains viable democratic politics is the underlying strength of social bonds that people can draw on to propel them into and sustain them in civic affairs. He (2000) documented the declining participation in civic life in America and speculated on the implications of this trend on a democracy. Others have challenged Putnam’s conclusion that civic engagement has declined and argue that technological and cultural trends have

presented opportunities for organizational membership that were not available 25 years ago and provide new opportunities for civic participation everywhere (Schudson, 1998). Schudson (1998) suggests that voter turnout, the public's expressed trust in government, membership and connection to social groups, the quality of public discourse, disparities between the rich and the poor, the capacity of the least advantaged groups to make their voice heard, and the extent of state guaranteed rights are all strong measures of civic participation.

La Due Lake and Huckfeldt (1998) point out that social capital cannot be defined on the basis of individual characteristics, or even on the basis of individual organizational memberships, because social capital is not produced or possessed individually. Rather it is produced through dense social networks, and its consequences for individuals must be assessed relative to networks (Djupe & Gilbert 2006). Similar to Verba et al. (1995), Bittman (2002) notes that since participation requires time and resources, those with inadequate leisure opportunities are excluded from the process. When there are large disparities in economic equality, groups at both ends of the spectrum may not feel they share a common fate, and they may differ in their outlook for the future and their ability to be masters of their own fate (Uslaner & Brown, 2005). One direct effect of inequality occurs when individuals of lower SES refrain from participation because they have fewer resources or because they think the deck is stacked against them (Uslaner & Brown, 2005).

Bittman (2002) argues that trust is a reflection of social capital wherein more social capital leads to higher levels of trust. Trust plays a significant role in political participation levels and is strongly affected by economic inequality (Uslaner & Brown, 2005; Zhang & Chia, 2006). A 30-year study of the effects of inequality and trust on political participation indicated that inequality is the strongest determinant of trust (Uslaner & Brown, 2005). Inequality is perceived to be a collective rather than an individual phenomenon. The poor may feel powerless--that their views are not represented in the political system--which contributes to their distrust; therefore, they may choose to opt out of political participation (Uslaner & Brown, 2005).

The Social Capital Model has been criticized because it does not explain whether civic and political participation would be higher if there were more equality and has limited ability to predict traditional political behavior (Uslaner & Brown, 2005). One would expect that inequality's effects on civic and political participation would vary according to the arena of engagement, with the strongest effect in arenas that require the most effort (Uslaner & Brown, 2005). For example, inequality may have less effect on voting and signing a petition than it would on working for a political party, giving to charity, and volunteering time (Uslaner & Brown, 2005).

The Socioeconomic (SES) Model is the most widely researched model of political participation documenting that individuals with higher educational attainment, higher incomes, and more lucrative occupations are more likely to be

politically active (McClurg, 2006; Uslaner & Brown, 2005; Verba, et al., 1995). Researchers cite the strength of the SES Model as its empirical power to predict political activity (Verba et al., 1995). There is a connection between people's place in the social milieu and their political activity, though it may be more subtle than previously recognized (McClurg, 2006). Americans from all income brackets have withdrawn from civic life, indicating that SES cannot be the full explanation for lower participation (Uslaner & Brown, 2005). Verba et al. (1995) point out that SES is weak in its power to predict who will participate in what activities and the extent of individual participation. The SES Model is also deficient in identifying the specific mechanisms that link SES to political participation such as the stake in outcomes, psychological investment, or increased opportunities, as was the case in the civil rights movement.

The SES Model also fails to explain the strong political participation of the elderly who have lower educational levels yet tend to have higher rates of voting (Goerres, 2007). This pattern has been attributed to the "cohort effect"--a shared experience by a group born during a certain period. Goerres (2007) points out that the elderly tend to be very stable; they have lived in the same area longer than others and have habituated voting to the point of feeling a strong norm for voting. While the income of the newly retired is higher due to accumulated wealth, the income of those who are older is usually less than their previous earning (Goerres, 2007). The elderly who do not vote tend to lack a mobilizing partner, have worse health, and are less educated than the older cohort in

general (Goerres, 2007). Goerres (2007) suggests that life experience replaces the function of formal education and income over a lifetime.

The Rational Actor Theory postulates that a rational citizen will vote only if the expected costs do not exceed the expected benefits. On the surface it can be argued that even a small cost will discourage a rational citizen from voting since the expected benefits are small (Engelen, 2006). Therefore, the rational individual will not expend the resources to participate in the political process but will instead ride on the coattails of those around them (Verba, et al. 1995).

Supporters of the Rational Actor Theory stress that rationality is wholly subjective, allowing for individual differences in aims, beliefs, preferences and acts. What matters is how the individual perceives the expected costs and benefits of the activity (Engelen, 2006; Geys, 2006). Another argument that supports the Rational Actor Theory is that an individual may enjoy the act of voting itself, independently of its impact on the electoral result. Private benefits may accrue regardless of whether the candidate wins. The individual may gain a sense of satisfaction from the act of voting or feel they have fulfilled their civic duty (Engelen, 2006). Satisfaction may be attributed to the ethic of voting or the satisfaction from affirming allegiance to a political party (Engelen, 2006; Fowler, 2006). People may see voting as a way of sending signals to others that they hope will help them build social capital or as a rational investment in building a reputation of cooperation that will benefit them in the long run (Engelen, 2006).

The decision to participate may also be guided in part by the potential negative social costs of not participating, such as social isolation or a reduction of prospects for occupational promotion (Engelen, 2006). Like all behavior, past voting experiences influence the probability of voting in the future. Goerres (2007a) questions whether after voting numerous times rational consideration still plays into the decision to vote. Pure Rational Choice Theory does not clearly explain voter turnout as an individual action that has value since a single vote is unlikely to affect the outcome. The inconsistencies between the Rational Actor Theory, the cost-benefit ratio of a single vote, and turnout rates is known as the paradox of voting (Geys, 2006).

Group-based models suggest that political behavior may be rational for a group of individuals because the expected benefits for the group may exceed individual voting costs at the group level (Geys, 2006). Groups rely on selective incentives such as sharing the feeling of group identity or loyalty to increase participation. Political participation becomes a social norm at the group level with actual participation affected by frequency of interaction and incentives. More frequent interactions increase the opportunity to reward desirable behavior and punish undesirable behavior (Geys, 2006). The group-based model is more relevant to the standard Rational Actor theory since participation may well be rational for a group (Geys, 2006). This may be evident in local elections where a referendum may significantly impact a particular neighborhood or group within



the community. Rationally, a single vote may not impact the outcome but, collectively, a group or neighborhood could influence the outcome.

### *Political Participation among Social Workers and the Counseling Professions*

While some research has documented social workers' political participation, apparently no study has documented the political participation of counselors and other professionals in the addiction treatment field. One can only speculate about this gap in the research. Perhaps the relative recent establishment of the counseling and addiction treatment fields has not yet led to research into this area, or perhaps the philosophical basis of the social work profession simply lends itself to focus more on its efforts to be active participants in social change.

The mission of Counselors for Social Justice (CSJ), a division of the American Counseling Association, is to promote social justice by confronting oppressive systems of power and privilege that affect the profession as well as its clients and encourage participation in activities that promote social change (Counselors for Social Justice, 2008a). CSJ encourages counselors to recognize a multifaceted approach to counseling which simultaneously promotes and addresses human development and distributive justice (Counselors for Social Justice, 2008a). Crethar and Ratts (2008) note that while it may not be common knowledge, "operating from a social justice perspective and taking a political stance on social issues has been a part of our profession since its inception." These authors also point out that oppression negatively impacts mental health

and they call for counselors to practice advocacy as well as counseling. Foley (2008) echoes this by pointing out the disparity in schools and the ongoing impact of racism and cautions counselors about believing that everyone faces a level playing field within society. Both Crethar and Ratts (2008) and Foley (2008) point out that neutrality supports the status quo, which is, in fact, a political act in itself. Counselors for Social Justice has published position statements on a range of social issues and provides counselors with updates on legislation of interest to the profession (Counselors for Social Justice, 2007b).

The social work profession has a longstanding commitment to advocacy and social justice; however, many would argue that in recent decades the profession has fallen short in demonstrating this commitment in actual practice (Reeser & Epstein, 1987, 1990; Specht & Courtney, 1992; Abramovitz & Bardill, 1993; Figueira-McDonough, 1993; Haynes & Mickelson, 1997; Shamai & Boehm, 2001; Harding, 2004). This discussion includes the extent to which social workers should be involved in politics and the activities that define political participation. Based on the Social Capital Theory of political participation (Schudson, 1998), which is perhaps the most consistent with the social work profession's values, one could argue that social workers cannot avoid working with the political system since all social work is intrinsically political, i.e., it is concerned with social change and a quest for social justice.

Based on the writings of Figueira-McDonough (1993) and Harding (2004), Ritter (2006) discusses the consequences of social workers' absence from the political process:

Most often, the decision makers who define the contexts within which social workers practice their profession tend to have backgrounds in economics, law, management, and politics. This fact raises two problems. First, it subordinates the exercise of the social work profession to purposes and regulations that are not informed by and often not consistent with the goals and values of social work. Second, decisions that are likely to have enormous impact on the lives of the recipients are made by people who have little or no direct knowledge of that constituency or contact with their circumstances. Policy decisions are predominantly made from the top down without input from the ground up. In sum, the absence of social workers from social policy practice is damaging to the identity of the profession and to the clients whose interest they should represent and defend. (p. 180)

Research on social workers' political participation is limited and the literature fails to clearly document the extent of their traditional political activity (Wolk, 1981; Parker and Sherraden, 1992; Ezell, 1993; Andrews, 1998). The literature does indicate that social workers most often participate in the following political activities: voting, contacting legislators by letter or phone, and membership in organizations that take public stands (Ritter, 2006). The political

activities social workers participate in the least include volunteering for and contributing financially to a political campaign and testifying before a legislative committee (Andrews, 1998; Ezell, 1993; Ritter, 2006; Wolk, 1981). Specifically, the most politically active social workers tend to be macro practitioners, older, more experienced, African American, and NASW members, and they tend to have higher incomes and educational levels (Wolk, 1981; Parker and Sherraden, 1992; Ezell, 1993; Andrews, 1998).

In the most extensive survey of the political participation of licensed social workers to date, Ritter (2006) noted that social workers are more politically active than the general population. Consistent with most theories of political participation that correlate higher educational level with political participation, social workers with Ph.D.s were more active than master's level social workers, who were more active than bachelor's level social workers. More experienced social workers were more politically active regardless of whether their experience was administrative, direct service, or both (Ritter, 2006).

Ritter's study (2006) of social workers' political participation is of particular interest since she used Verba et al.'s (1995) Civic Voluntarism Model (CVM), the model used in this study. Ritter (2006) found that social workers are more active in political activities that do not require a significant investment of resources--defined as time, civic skills, and money--in order to participate. Ritter's (2006) respondents were most active in the following political activities---voting, contacting legislators, being a member of a political organization, discussing

politics with others, and persuading others how to vote. They were least active in activities that require money (e.g., contributing financially to campaigns) or a greater time investment (e.g., community work, serving on a board, testifying at a hearing, attending political meetings/rallies, working on a campaign, etc.).

Ritter's (2006) found that three components of psychological engagement she studied (interest in local politics, efficacy, and knowledge) were significant predictors of social workers' political participation; however, interest in national politics was not. Ritter (2006) also found recruitment networks to be a significant predictor of social workers' political participation. Ritter (2006) provides empirical support that social networks and psychological engagement with politics, not resources, are crucial factors in explaining social workers' political participation. She notes that social workers who are interested in politics, are knowledgeable about politics, exhibit higher levels of political efficacy, and are attached to social networks such as NASW, are more likely to be politically active.

None of the resource variables Ritter (2006) studied (time, money and civic skills) were significant in predicting social workers' political participation. Ritter (2006) suggests that while many have questioned whether social workers are politically active "enough," the better question to address through research might be whether social workers are sufficiently active in the "right" political activities---those that have the most potential to promote social and political change.

### *Racial and Ethnic Influences on Participation*

In the arena of political participation, especially voting, particular groups or segments of the population have been historically disenfranchised by English literacy tests, “white primaries,” poll taxes, and intimidation and violence. While the majority of these practices have ended, the legacy lives on in the members of the groups that experienced them. Feelings of mistrust in and alienation from all levels of government are passed down across generations (Fridkin, Kenney, & Crittenden, 2006). For example, the parents of many children of color may continue to harbor ill will toward the government, and they are likely to pass these views to their children (Fridkin et al, 2006). This could inhibit or promote political activity among their children.

Political science research provides evidence that the related concepts of group consciousness, cohesion, and linked fate are associated with increased political participation (Sanchez, 2006). Group consciousness is seen in instances where a group maintains a sense of affinity and identification with other members of the group leading to a collective orientation to become more politically active. Group consciousness has three distinct components: (1) group identity, (2) recognition of disadvantaged status, and (3) desire for collective action to overcome that status (Sanchez, 2006).

When socioeconomic status (SES) is controlled, African Americans tend to participate at higher rates than Whites across several modes of participation with the concept of group consciousness as the explanation for this empirical

trend (Sanchez, 2006). Group consciousness increases Latino political participation but in varying degrees across the various Latino subgroups (Sanchez, 2006). Among Latinos, commonality and perceived discrimination have the greatest impact on political participation. Sanchez (2006) suggests that group consciousness is more meaningful in the context of political activities that are directly tied to the Latino community rather than broader issues that Latinos may feel minimally affect their group or community. Sanchez (2006) found only three variables that significantly related to voter registration among Latinos: commonality (recognizing the benefits of Latino collective action), internal efficacy, and length of time spent in the United States.

Latinos with longer residence in the United States are more likely to participate in U.S. politics; their familiarity with the American political system may make them more likely to participate (Sanchez, 2006). Language has been consistently identified as a dominant influence in Latino's political participation, with English-speaking Latinos having greater access to the resources necessary to participate (Sanchez, 2006). Latinos tend to participate in activities that directly affect the interest of the Latino community. This may account for the inability of collective action to influence voter registration, or voting in general, among Latinos where a cultural sense of commonality is more meaningful to political participation than a sense of political commonality (Sanchez, 2006). This suggests that group consciousness motivates Latinos to direct their collective

efforts toward political activities that directly affect the status of the Latino community rather than the act of voting itself (Sanchez, 2006).

### *Gender Influence on Political Participation*

The literature documents that gender differences in political participation are significant across virtually all activities, further substantiating the need to control for it in this study. Verba et al. (1995) reported minimal gender differences in voting behavior and suggest that the overall gap may be closing on this activity. The differences are more significant in activities other than voting. For instance, men are more inclined to be members of political parties, make political donations, volunteer for campaigns, and contact elected officials. Contrary to what might be assumed, men are also generally more likely to be members of civic groups and to participate in civic-orientated activity (Norris, Lovenduski, & Campbell, 2004).

Verba et al. (1995) noted that men and women are involved in different kinds of civic organizations with women less likely to be involved with organizations that take a public stand on political issues. While one might assume that women would be involved in voluntary activity in the community more than men, Verba et al. (1995) found virtually no difference with the exception of religious institutions. Women reported giving more time to charitable and social activities and making more contributions to religious institutions, but across the board, men reported making larger contributions than women. Norris et al. (2004) reported that women are equally or more likely to participate in



cause-oriented activities such as signing petitions and boycotting or buying products for political or ethical reasons. In some activities, such as participating in a demonstration or protesting illegally, no gender differences are evident (Norris et al., 2004; Verba et al., 1995).

### *Age and Political Participation*

Putnam (2000) noted that age is second only to education as a predictor of virtually all forms of civic and political engagement despite a wide range of activities across age categories. The literature consistently notes that middle-aged people are more active than other age groups in civic organizations, vote more regularly, contribute more money, show more interest in politics, volunteer more, and are, overall, more active in their communities. Older people, the fastest growing age group, come in second on almost all dimensions of participation, while young people have the lowest participation. Verba and Nie (1987) discuss this variance in political participation as stages in the life cycle, noting that most studies of political participation have found a distinctive curve of participation associated with age or life cycle. Within this curve, participation increases from the twenties to the forties then begins to decline relative to aging and the physical, social, and economic factors associated with aging. Putnam (2000) argues that age may not be the key indicator of political participation as much as the year of birth, noting that individuals born in between 1910 and 1920 belonged to almost twice as many civic organizations as those born in the 1960s. They also voted twice as much, demonstrated more interest in politics, and

volunteered more in their community. Successive generations have consistently showed a decline in civic and political participation.

Research from the 2008 presidential election may provide data indicating that the influence of age on political participation is shifting. It is unclear whether the trend in political participation among youth has changed or whether the existing measures of political participation have failed to capture the political participation of younger generations who utilize technology as a part of their daily life.

#### *Collective Political Participation*

Research into the predictors and factors that influence political participation reveal the interconnectedness of many factors. For instance, being asked to protest is the strongest predictor of participation in a protest, but numerous other individual characteristics such as political interest and organizational ties are important predictors of who is likely to be asked (Schussman & Soule, 2005). The increasing presence of social movements suggests that the political activities associated with social movements are becoming part of the normal political process and part of the repertoire of citizens' political activities. As voting has decreased, participation in protests has increased even though it is an activity that takes more time (Schussman & Soule, 2005). Research into the links between individual characteristics and collective action reveal a more complicated set of indicators as paths to activism than those typically explored (Schussman & Soule, 2005). Because organizations are

presumed to forge ties between individuals, membership in organizations is almost always found to facilitate recruitment to political participation (Schussman & Soule, 2005; Verba et al., 1995).

With the exception of liberal individuals who possess civic skills and are already strongly engaged in politics, people seldom participate in protest and other political activities, even when they have the interest and information, unless they are explicitly asked to do so (Schussman & Soule, 2005). The presence of a connection to someone already engaged in a movement is one of the strongest predictors of individual participation (Schussman & Soule, 2005; Verba et al., 1995). Unfortunately, organizations working to mobilize political participation consistently reach out to those who are already politically engaged, civically skilled, and socioeconomically advantaged, rather than encouraging politically disengaged individuals to participate, thus perpetuating participatory inequality (Krueger, 2006).

Organizations working to promote collective behavior have found the Internet to be a useful tool for disseminating information, but the Internet's ability to influence traditional political participation is still unclear. In a study of Americans who uses the Internet, 80% of those polled said the Internet plays a vital role in their daily routine (Jensen, Danziger, & Venkatesh, 2007). The use of the Internet to educate and mobilize political participation is clearly evolving and growing in its usefulness. MoveOn.org (MoveOn) began as an online petition in 1998 and grew to a thriving online political organization reporting 3.2 million

members in 2007 (MoveOn.org, 2007). MoveOn focuses on education and advocacy on national political issues, mobilizing its members to take action. It now operates one of the largest political action committees as a result of offering small donors an easy way to make contributions to numerous political campaigns.

The Internet is widely recognized as a useful tool for disseminating information; however, research has yet to clearly document the extent of activity generated from the knowledge. The value of the Internet as a tool was first witnessed in Howard Dean's early successes in the 2004 Presidential campaign. As the governor of Vermont, Dean was relatively unknown nationally. The Internet is commonly credited for the rapid growth in his popularity and the financial support for his campaign for the 2004 Democratic presidential nomination. Dean built an unprecedented grassroots network of support through the Internet and bloggers, gaining the support of youth and the Internet community, neither of which would likely have been involved in the primary process to the extent they were had they not been accessed through the Internet (Wolf, 2004). The 2008 political campaign may be the best gauge of the Internet's ability to influence political activity. Barak Obama raised record breaking sums from small donors through online contributions (Arrington, 2008). The Internet radically reduces the cost of political mobilization and shows considerable potential to reach broader and/or different segments of the U.S. population than traditional mobilization (Krueger, 2006).

There is anecdotal evidence that technology and the Internet function as a gateway for engaging youth participation. Facebook, a popular social network site among youth, encourages and supports an online participatory culture (Kann, Barry, Gant, & Zager, 2007). Kann et al. (2007) cite four reasons that online participatory cultures such as Facebook have the potential to increase youth's political participation 1) they promote values conducive to democracy, 2) they provide opportunities to learn citizenship skills, 3) they increase political mobilization, and 4) they tend to favor progressive or liberal politics. Technology and the Internet lower the threshold for political participation and provide opportunities for youth to engage in causes to which they are most connected such as labor practices, human rights, and environmental issues (Kann et al., 2007). Given the Obama campaign's extensive use of technology and the Internet, it is not surprising that his vice presidential candidate was announced using text messaging. Kann et al. (2007) suggest that text messaging may become the new version of person-to-person politics since 14% to 25% of solicited political e-mail messages are opened while approximately 95% of text messages are opened.

#### *Political Participation among Individuals with Mental Illness*

Hayes, Scheufele, and Huge (2006) assert that political participation is a social process governed in part by the social/psychological implications of participation to the person. Individuals may refrain from participating in publicly observable political activities that make them vulnerable to scrutiny and criticism

by others who hold opinions that differ from their own. The public expression of one's opinions entails the real likelihood of being scrutinized, criticized, put on the defensive, or ostracized by others who disagree (Noelle-Neuman, 1993 cited in Hayes et al., 2006). Hayes et al. (2006) point out that public opinion is not what the people think, but what they are willing to acknowledge they think. They argue that with the exception of voting, most forms of political activity involve some degree of "publicness," such as volunteering for a campaign or contacting elected officials, and can be construed as public forms of opinion expression (Hayes et al., 2006). This may be particularly relevant to individuals addicted to AOD, those with a mental health diagnoses, and individuals recovering from AOD addiction and the type of activities in which they choose to participate. Failure to engage in politics is viewed as a form of self-censorship especially when issues are emotionally charged or the political environment is hostile (Hayes et al., 2006). Individuals who are more likely to self censor are described as relatively less argumentative, more fearful of negative evaluation by others, more publicly self conscious, having lower self esteem, more likely to look to others for guidance about how to behave, and shyer (Hayes et al., 2006).

There is some research to suggest that individuals with mental illness as well as those involved with self-help groups are less inclined to be politically active (Schudson, 2006). Putnam reports that support groups provide individuals with insight and support which helps them become stronger; however, their community involvement and political participation remain minimal (Putnam,

2000). Schudson (2006) suggests that the lack of civic and political involvement of individuals involved in support groups may be attributed to the fact that they are still taking the step of recognizing a private trouble as a socially or politically organized trouble for which there might be social or institutional remedies.

AOD addiction is a recognized psychiatric diagnosis and covered to varying degrees by the Americans with Disabilities Act (U.S. Department of Labor, 2007). While not all individuals recovering from AOD addiction would identify as being disabled, it is worth noting that voting rates among people with disabilities are 14-21% below that of nondisabled Americans (Schur, Shields, & Schriener, 2005). The literature indicates that living with a disability may cause one person to withdraw from social encounters while it motivates another to engage in political action, especially if they are stigmatized by others (Anspach, 1979, cited in Schur, Shields, & Schriener, 2005).

At this time there is no research documenting the civic and political participation of individuals recovering from AOD addiction. With the growing emphasis on consumer advocacy among individuals recovering from AOD addiction and efforts to influence AOD policy, this topic is particularly timely, and this study will begin to fill a gap in the research literature.

### *Conceptual Model*

In asking why people do not participate in politics, Verba et al. (1995) assert it is because they can't; they don't want to; or nobody asked. Verba et al. (1995) used these three situations to develop the Civic Voluntarism Model (CVM)

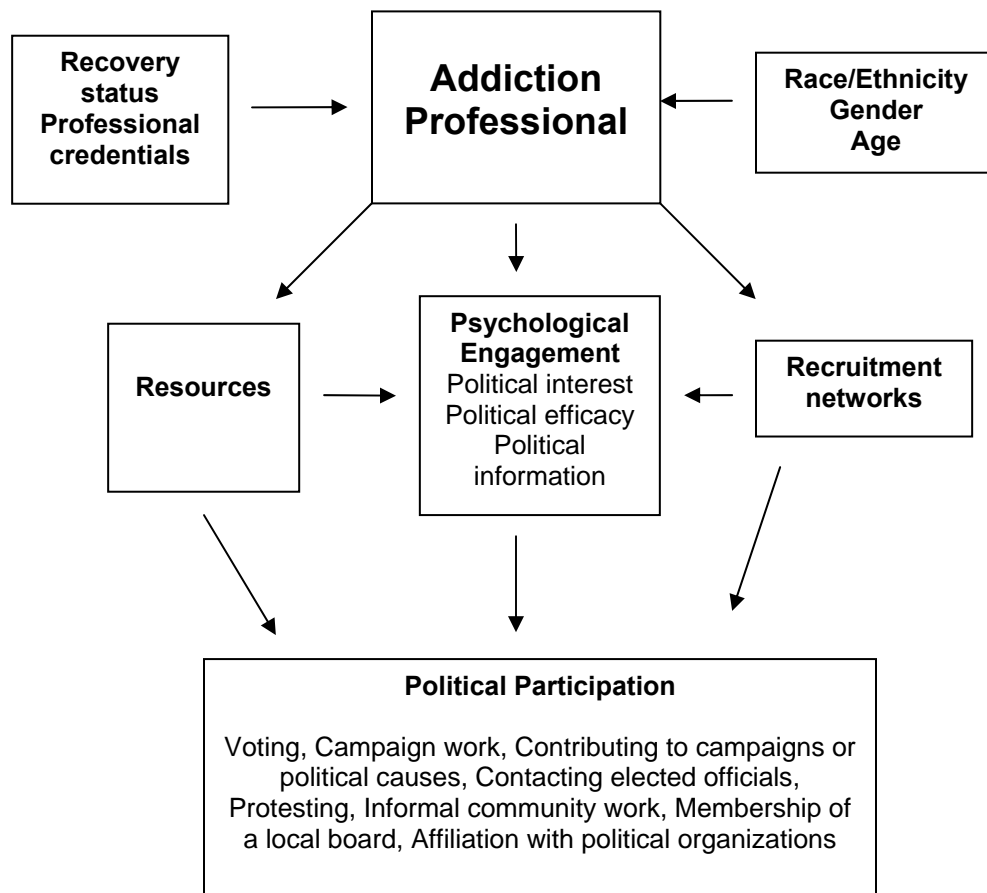
(See Figure 1). According to Verba et al. (1995), “they can’t” reflects a lack of necessary resources such as time, money, and/or civic skills. “They don’t want to” reflects a lack of engagement in the political process which may result from disinterest, lack of information, or a belief that their participation will not make a difference. “Nobody asked” implies that the individuals’ political and/or nonpolitical social networks have not attempted to mobilize them.

While a broader definition and model of political participation may be more consistent with a social work philosophy, Verba et al.’s (1995) theory of factors that influence political participation was selected for this study because it contains factors included in most theories of political participation, provides an instrument that allows for the measurement of predictors of political participation, and has been used in previous research among social workers and the public-at-large. In addition, the traditional political activities encompassed in Verba et al.’s (1995) model are generally the most direct route to changing public policy. In this study, other items of interest have been added concerning alcohol and drug policy. The Civic Voluntarism Model (Verba et al., 1995), a conservative model of political participation, focuses on traditional political participation as well as civic involvement, recognizing the relationship of civic involvement to potentially shape and nurture traditional political activity. Verba et al.’s (1995) survey instrument is in the public domain and has been recently used in a survey of social workers’ political participation (Ritter, 2006).



Verba et al. (1995) assert that a resource-based explanation of political behavior is preferable to the Socioeconomic Status (SES) Model since individuals with high SES also tend to have the time and skills to participate in the political process. The CVM focuses on voluntary civic activities within the community in addition to traditional political activities and asserts that civic participation is instrumental in fostering the skills, knowledge, and confidence necessary for participation in the political process. Verba et al.'s (1995) Citizen Participation Study survey includes a wide range of political activities such as voting, campaign work, contributing to campaigns or political causes, contacting elected officials, protesting, informal community work, membership on local boards, and affiliations with political organizations.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Diagram of Study Using the Civic Voluntarism Model



Conceptual Model adapted from the Civic Voluntarism Model (Verba et al., 1995)

### *Resources*

Verba et al. (1995) place special emphasis on resources (defined as time, money, and civic skills) as the initial factor predicting political participation. Resources are viewed as the principal explanation of inequality in political participation. Money and time are the resources that typically constrain political participation, with money being the most stratifying factor within the resource

category. Studies of political participation repeatedly point out the association between income and time (Bittman, 2002; Verba et al., 1995) and that political leaders are more likely to represent the views of those with more resources (Uslaner & Brown, 2005). Income is an important factor to consider in encouraging political participation since the interests and investment in outcomes of those with wealth and those in lower income groups are often drastically different. Individuals with higher incomes are able to make contributions to political causes and are more likely to have been socialized toward political participation over the course of a lifetime. However, time is a factor that often depends on life circumstances and is not necessarily related to income. For example, retired people regardless of income often have more time to participate in civic activities.

Civic skills offer individuals in lower income groups the opportunity to offset the effects of lower SES on political participation (Verba et al., 1995). The Civic Voluntarism Model (CVM) points out that places of employment, churches, synagogues and nonpolitical organizations play a key role in helping individuals develop social and civic skills that give them confidence in their ability to participate in the political process. Small group activities foster the skills necessary for political participation, including the ability to participate in meetings where decisions are made, give speeches or presentations, and organize events, all of which help develop the capacity, regardless of income, to convey detailed agendas to policy makers (Verba et al., 1995). Participation in meetings allows

the individual to learn to communicate clearly and to negotiate issues. Meetings in nonpolitical settings often involve exposure to and discussion of political issues and are often a focus of recruitment for other organizations. Giving speeches or presentations promotes confidence and the ability to communicate more effectively. Organizing events allows the individual to develop organizational and leadership skills, network with others, and communicate effectively.

### *Psychological Engagement*

The CVM also gauges psychological engagement by measuring interest in politics, political information, and political efficacy (Verba et al, 1995). According to Verba and colleagues (1995), individuals interested in and concerned about their community and what happens in local and/or national affairs, are more likely to be politically active. Political information refers to individuals' knowledge of political affairs, which reflects their awareness of normal everyday matters. Political efficacy refers to the individual's perceived ability to influence decision makers and elected officials.

The relationship between the CVM factors and specific political activities becomes more obvious when exploring psychological engagement.

Psychological engagement (political interest, political information, and political efficacy) is associated with the likelihood of participating in political discussions; whereas, resources are associated with the likelihood of making a political contribution (Verba et al., 1995). Often the situations and opportunities that increase the individual's level of psychological engagement are not directly

political. Political discussions can occur anywhere (e.g., church, workplace) providing additional knowledge and increasing political interest. This underscores the significance of civic involvement in fostering and predicting political participation.

### *Recruitment Networks*

Research documents that individuals are more likely to participate in political activity when they are asked. The Civic Voluntarism Model (Verba et al., 1995) focuses on the role of employers and civic and religious institutions as training grounds for individuals to develop skills that prepare them for political participation; however, an equally important function of employers, civic, and religious groups is serving as a point of access for recruitment to participate in political action (Verba et al., 1995). Institutions may introduce politics, covertly or overtly, or they may serve as an intermediary for solicitation by outside organizations with common goals. Requests for participation may be direct or come from cues provided through political discussions. Individuals' networks are complex and include their employer or employers; civic, professional, religious or political organizations; and friends, acquaintances, and family members. Despite increased exposure to the media and electronic communication, personal communication through friends, family, and acquaintances continues to be a crucial element of recruitment (Verba et al., 1995).

Verba et al. (1995) recognize the importance of social structures in preparing the individual to participate in political activities. They suggest that the

factors that foster participation, resources, engagement, and recruitment networks, are acquired throughout the course of life through families, educational institutions, jobs, civic and political organizations, and religious institutions. The degree of involvement within each of these institutions has a cumulative effect in providing opportunities for acquiring skills and exposure to political issues and the political process. Central to this socialization process and the preparation for political participation is education. In addition to providing knowledge, education allows individuals to strengthen their skills, which, in turn, helps them excel in employment, accumulate greater wealth, and have more free time, and provides the opportunity to play a more prominent role in civic, religious, and political organizations. All of these factors also have the potential to influence political participation as they are passed down from one generation to the next.

Research consistently documents that individuals with social and economic advantage are more likely to be politically active (Bittman, 2002; McClurg, 2006; Uslaner & Brown, 2005; Verba et al., 1995). These individuals are more likely to be white, in older age groups, and have higher incomes and higher educational levels (Ritter, 2006; Verba, et al., 1995). Individuals or groups that tend to be less politically active are more likely to be African American or Hispanic, younger, unemployed, of low socioeconomic status, less educated, and living in the South (Ritter, 2006; Verba, et al., 1995). This study will control for race/ethnicity, gender, and age to determine their influence on addiction professionals' political participation.

The influence of income on political interest and participation begins at an early age (Fridkin et al., 2006). Families with higher incomes have more political information in their homes, are more likely to subscribe to national news media, have Internet access, and receive a daily newspaper, all of which are likely to increase a child's exposure to political content and their understanding of politics (Fridkin et al., 2006). Access to resources is also associated with the quality of schools children attend and is a fundamental element for understanding individuals' political engagement at a young age (Fridkin et al., 2006). Fridkin et al. (2006) suggest that the desire to engage in politics is already forming by age 14. Access to resources in schools and in families varies dramatically along racial and ethnic lines and establishes inequities in political interest and future participation (Fridkin et al., 2006). Given the variation in resources across schools systems, it is not surprising to find differences in the civic preparedness of children of different racial and ethnic groups. Researchers found that children of different racial and ethnic groups differ dramatically in their skills and information levels about politics and government. Anglos are more likely to have basic information about politics and government, practice democratic skills in school and at home, and hold positive attitudes toward politics and government. Native Americans reportedly have the least information, fewest opportunities to practice democratic skills, and the most negative attitudes toward the political system (Fridkin et al., 2006). A school's quality and resources can serve to level the playing field by providing exposure to civic engagement or exacerbate the

inequalities that children bring from their home and neighborhood, depending on factors such as race, ethnicity, and language spoken at home (Pacheco & Plutzer, 2007).

In the Civic Voluntarism Model, Verba et al. (1995) stress the importance of political interest. Without some level of interest in politics, individuals probably will not participate. However, information is a necessary component to participation since individuals who are not informed about politics will probably not develop an interest in political issues or participate in political activities of any type (Schussman & Soule, 2005). Putnam (1995) notes that political knowledge and political interest are two critical preconditions for active forms of political participation (Putnam, 1995). Schussman and Soule (2005) also document political efficacy as the third necessary component for political participation, which they define as the sense that one's actions can make a difference and/or be received positively by elected officials or authorities.

Some key elements of civic engagement, such as the presence of rudimentary information, the opportunity to practice democratic skills, and positive attitudes toward government, differ by race, ethnicity, and resources (Fridkin et al., 2006). Gronlund and Milner (2006) confirmed the significance of political knowledge as a predictor of political participation. They found that while education explains what citizens know about politics, the effect of education varies with the structural inequalities the individual experiences. Lesser interest and information may stem from individual-level factors such as lower levels of



educational attainment and socioeconomic status or from continued suspicion of the institutions and elected officials who are the sources of political information (Griffin & Flavin, 2007). The substantial racial disparities among ethnic groups stem from a variety of factors including difficulty acquiring information and the fact that candidates and parties are less likely to target people of color for mobilization during elections (Griffin & Flavin, 2007).

Outside the family, religious institutions are the second most prominent social opportunity for developing political preparedness. The role of churches in the development of civic skills is well documented (Djupe & Gilbert, 2006; Leroux, 2007; Verba et al., 1995). Not only do clergy sometimes attempt to directly mobilize their congregations for political activity around their congregation's values, they offer social networks within the congregation that are often infused with political information. Research shows that by attending church activities and participating in small groups designed to fulfill other needs and desires, individuals develop civic skills that are transferable to the political process (Djupe & Gilbert, 2006; Verba et al., 1995). The literature points out that simply attending church is not sufficient to develop the type of skills that can be used in the political arena. Direct participation in small group activities is necessary for developing skills required for political participation (Djupe & Gilbert 2006; Verba et al., 1995).

Verba et al. (1995) describe churches as the domain of equal access for opportunities to learn civic skills since more significant disparities exist among

demographic groups in the workplace. Members of a congregation often share the same race, socioeconomic status, and values, providing social networks that serve as a powerful socializing agent (Djupe & Gilbert, 2006; Verba et al., 1995). Membership makes it more likely that the members will agree on issues, making the ties formed within the church avenues of mobilization (Schussman & Soule, 2005).

While participation in a religious institution may provide the opportunity for members to develop skills for political participation, its usefulness as a predictor has been argued. One study found religion to be significant, but a negative rather than positive predictor of political participation, suggesting that secular organizations are more likely than faith-based organizations to link clients to public officials (Leroux, 2007). Possible explanations for this finding may be related to faith-based organizations' concerns about jeopardizing their tax status or alienating their parishioners who hold different political views (Leroux, 2007).

### *Conclusion*

Researchers have consistently identified factors that influence individuals' traditional political activity. These factors extend beyond SES or Rational Choice Theory alone, with inequality in participation influenced by the history and institutional challenges that racial/ethnic groups and other disenfranchised groups face. Those who are the most politically active are advantaged in many ways. Unequal political participation underscores the need for professional associations of groups such as social workers and addiction professionals to

advocate for those they serve. The theoretical model outlined in the CVM has not been utilized in studies of addiction professionals. Among this group the presence of certified addiction professionals, social workers, those in other professional fields, and individuals recovering from AOD addiction makes this study topic unique and deserving of further investigation.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Methodology**

This chapter outlines the study's aims and the specific research questions to be answered followed by an explanation of the sampling strategy and data collection methods. A detailed description of the survey specifies how each variable was measured and coded including the demographic variables. The data analysis plan used in the study is also presented as are methods for human subjects' protection.

#### *Study Aims and Research Questions*

This study investigated the political participation of members of NAADAC, the Association of Addiction Professions, the oldest and largest association of addiction professionals, to answer the following research questions:

- 1) In what civic and political activities do NADAAC members participate and what is the extent of their participation in these activities?
  - 1a.) Is there a difference in the civic and political participation of NAADAC members who report they are recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction and those who report they are not recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction?
  - 1 b) Is there a difference in the civic and political activity of NAADAC members who possess professional credentials in addition to NAADAC certification, members with NAADAC certification but no other professional credentials, and members with no certification?

- 1 c) Is there a difference in the civic and political participation of NAADAC members who are social workers and those who are not social workers?
- 2) Do resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks predict political participation among NAADAC members?
- 2a) How do resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks compare in their influence on NAADAC members' political participation?
- 2b) Are there differences in the influence of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks in predicting political participation among NAADAC members who report they are recovering from alcohol and/or other drug addiction and NAADAC members who report they are not recovering from alcohol and/or other drug addiction?
- 2c) Are there differences in the influence of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks in predicting political participation among NAADAC members who are social workers and those who are not social workers?
- 2d) Are there differences in the influence of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks in predicting political participation among NAADAC members who possess professional credentials in addition to NAADAC certification, members with NAADAC certification but no other professional credentials, and members with no certification?

### *Sample & Data Collection*

The sample includes all individual members of NAADAC, the Association for Addiction Professionals (NAADAC), who had an e-mail address on file. NAADAC was selected because it is the oldest and largest national accreditation organization of addiction professionals with uniform certification standards and members in 46 states. NAADAC granted approval to conduct the survey with the stipulation that its administrative staff would inform members of the survey. NAADAC distributed the request to participate in the study by e-mail to approximately 9,500 individual members who had an e-mail address on file (Appendix A). NAADAC estimated that it had approximately 10,500 individual members and an e-mail address on file for approximately 90% of them. The e-mail explained the purpose of the survey and that participation was entirely voluntary, asked participants to complete the survey, and provided them with a link to access the survey online (the survey was not available in paper form). In an attempt to increase the response rate, three weeks after the initial invitation to participate, NAADAC sent a follow up reminder and request to participate by e-mail to all members with an e-mail address (see Appendix B). The survey remained active on Survey Monkey for a period of seven weeks. Survey Monkey maintains rigorous physical and technological safety precautions to protect data collected through their site including SSL encryption for the survey link and survey pages during transmission (Survey Monkey, 2008).

The online survey (see Appendix C) began with a cover letter explaining the study and provided the contact information of the principal investigator and the dissertation chair and a statement that answering survey questions was an acknowledgement of informed consent. Participants acknowledged consent by clicking on a designated icon indicating they wished to proceed with the survey. The online survey process allowed the participant to terminate the survey at any point. No information was requested that would identify the participants.

### *Measurement of Variables*

The survey was composed of questions from Verba, Schlozman, and Brady's (1995) Citizen Participation Study (CPS) survey. The CPS survey includes items on the study's dependent variable--civic and political participation, and the study's independent variables--resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks (see Table 3.1). The survey as used in the current study included 84 closed-ended questions including demographics and an 8-item Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability scale to evaluate social desirability bias (Ray, 1984). Questions from the CPS were selected to assess the individual's political participation, three dimensions of psychological engagement: political interest, political efficacy, and political information; three aspects of resources: time, money, and civic skills; and recruitment networks. Additional questions were added to capture race/ethnicity, age, gender, education, professional credentials, awareness of efforts to influence alcohol and other drug policy, and whether or not participants are recovering from AOD addiction. The survey was

tested with four volunteers to determine the amount of time required to complete it. Based on the volunteers' feedback, the survey took approximately 20 minutes to complete and no issues were identified that needed to be addressed.

Table 3.1: Dependent, Independent, and Control Variables

Category	Variables	Measurement Items
Dependent variable	Political participation	Voting Campaign work Campaign contributions Political cause contributions Contacting elected officials Protesting Informal community work Membership on a local board Affiliation with political organizations
Independent variables	Resources	Time Money Civic skills
	Psychological engagement	Political interest Political efficacy Political information
	Recruitment networks	Asked to participate by NAADAC A close friend Employer A political organization A religious organization
Control variables	Recovery status	Recovering from AOD addiction Or not recovering
	Other Licensed/Certified Credential	Social work, Marriage & family therapist Professional counselor Mental health counselor
	Race	White African American Hispanic/Latino American Indian Asian Pacific Islander



Age	Under 25 25-34 35-44 45-54 55-64 65 and over
Gender	Male/Female

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### *Dependent Variable*

The dependent variable in this study is political participation. The Citizens Participation Study (CPS) (Verba et al., 1995) survey used 22 political activities to measure an individual's level of political participation (see Table 3.2). The survey measures activities such as voting, campaign work, contributing to campaigns or political causes, contacting elected officials, protesting, informal community work, membership of a local board, and affiliation with political organizations. Responses to these questions were coded so that more participation resulted in higher scores. A negative (no) response to participation was coded as zero and a positive (yes) response was coded as 1. Two questions asked about the frequency of voting (#1 and #2). For these two questions about voting the response "all of them" was coded as a four, "most of them" was coded as a three, "some of them" was coded as a two, "rarely voted in them" was coded as a one and "never voted in them" was coded as a zero. On two questions about membership on a local board (#13 and #15), an affirmative response resulted in a skip pattern that added two questions about the frequency of attendance. The response "regularly" was coded as a two and the response

“once in awhile” was coded as a one. Scores were then summed to create the political participation index with a possible range of 0 to 32.

Verba and colleagues (1995) reported a Cronbach’s alpha of .619 and Ritter (2006) reported a Cronbach’s alpha of .609 for this scale. In the current study, Cronbach’s alpha was .717, indicating a higher level of internal consistency reliability.

Table 3.2: Description of Measures of Political Participation

Variable	Measurement Items
Voting	<p>(1) In talking to people about elections, we find that they are sometimes not able to vote because they’re not registered, they don’t have time, or they have difficulty getting to the polls. Think about the presidential elections since you were old enough to vote. Have you voted in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. All of them</li> <li>b. Most of them</li> <li>c. Some of them</li> <li>d. Rarely voted in them</li> <li>e. Never voted in them</li> </ul> <p>(2) Now thinking about the local elections that have been held since you were old enough to vote, have you voted in all of them, in most of them, in some of them, rarely voted in them or have you never voted in a local election?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>f. All of them</li> <li>g. Most of them</li> <li>h. Some of them</li> <li>i. Rarely voted in them</li> <li>j. Never voted in them</li> </ul> <p>(3) Thinking back to the national election in November 2004, when the presidential candidates were John Kerry, the Democrat and George W. Bush the Republican, did you happen to vote in that election? (Y/N)</p>
Campaign work	<p>(4) Since January 2004 the start of the last national election year, have you worked as a volunteer—that is for no pay at all or for only a token amount—for a candidate running for national, state, or local office? (Y/N)</p>
Contributing to campaigns	<p>(5) We have been talking about campaign activity. Now we</p>

would like to talk about contributions to campaigns. Since January 2004, did you contribute money—to an individual candidate, a part group a political action committee, or any other organization that supported candidates? (Y/N)

Contacting government officials

(6) Now I want to ask you a few questions about contacts you may have initiated with government officials or someone on the staff of such officials—either in person or by phone or letter—about problems or issues with which you were concerned. Please don't count any contacts you have made as a regular part of your job. (Y/N)

(7) In the past twelve months, have you initiated any contacts with a federal elected official or someone on the staff of such an official: I mean someone in the White House or a Congressional or Senate Office? (Y/N)

(8) What about a non-elected official in a federal government agency? Have you initiated a contact with such a person in the last twelve months? (Y/N)

(9) What about an elected official on the state or local level—a governor or mayor or a member of the state legislature or a city or town council—or someone on the staff of such an elected official? (Y/N)

(10) And what about a non-elected official in a state or local government agency or board? Have you initiated a contact with such a person in the last twelve months? (Y/N)

Protesting

(11) In the past two years, have you taken part in a protest, march, or demonstration on some national or local issue (other than a strike against your employer)? (Y/N)

Informal community work

(12) Now some questions about your role in your community. In the past two years have you served in a voluntary capacity—that is, for no pay at all or for only a token amount—on any official local governmental board or council that deals with community problems and issues such as a town council, a school board, a zoning board, a planning board or the like? (Y/N)

Membership on a local board

(13) Have you attended a meeting of such an official local government board or council in the past twelve months? (Y/N)

If Yes: Do you attend these meetings regularly or have you attended only once in a while?

- a. Regularly
- b. Once in a while

(14) Aside from membership on a board or council or attendance at meetings, I'd like to ask also about informal activity in your community or neighborhood. In the past twelve months, have you gotten together informally with or worked with others in your community or neighborhood to try to deal with some community issue or problem? (Y/N)

(15) Have you attended a meeting of an official local government board or council in the past twelve months? (Y/N)

- a. If yes: Do you attend these meetings regularly or have you attended only once in a while?  
Regularly/Once in a while

Affiliation with political organizations

(16) Are you a member of any of the following organizations?

- a. Service clubs or fraternal organizations such as the Lions or Kiwanis or a local woman's club or a fraternal organization at a school
- b. Veterans' organizations such as the American Legion or the Veteran's of Foreign Wars
- c. Groups affiliated with your religion such as the Knights of Columbus or B'nai B'rith
- d. Organizations representing your own particular nationality or ethnic group such as the Polish-American Congress, the Mexican-American Legal Defense and Education Fund, or the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People
- e. Organizations that support research for health related issues such as the Susan G. Komen Foundation or the Lance Armstrong Foundation
- f. Organizations for the elderly or senior citizens
- g. Organizations mainly interested in issues promoting the rights or welfare of women—such as the National Organization for Women, the Eagle Forum or the American Association of University Women
- h. Labor unions
- i. Other organizations associated with your work such as a business or professional association (NAADAC), or a farm organization
- j. Organizations active on one particular political issue such as the environment, abortion, gun control, consumer's rights or any other issue

- k. Organizations associated with the rights of gay and lesbians such as the Human Rights Campaign
- l. Non-partisan or civic organizations interested in the political life of the community or the nation such as the League of Women Voters or a better government association
- m. Organizations that support general liberal or conservative causes such as the Americans for Democratic Action or the Conservative Caucus
- n. Organizations active in supporting candidates in elections such as a party organization
- o. Youth groups such as the Girl Scouts or the 4-H
- p. Literary, art, discussion or study groups
- q. Hobby clubs, sports or country clubs or other groups or clubs for leisure time activities
- r. Associations related to where you live – neighborhood or community associations, homeowners' or condominium associations or block clubs.
- s. Organizations that provide social services in such fields as health or service to the needy for instance a hospital, local HIV/AIDS organization, or the Salvation Army.
- t. Educational institutions-local schools, your own school or college, or organizations associated with education such as school alumni associations or school service organizations like the PTA
- u. Organizations that are active in providing cultural services to the public – for example museums, symphonies, or public radio or television
- v. Other organizations: (Please specify)

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(17) Have you attended a meeting of any of these organizations in the past twelve months? (Y/N)

(18) Are there sometimes political discussions on the agenda of these meetings? (Y/N)

(19) Do people at these meetings sometimes chat informally about politics or government? (Y/N)

(20) Do you consider yourself an active member of the organization—that is, in the past twelve months have you served on a committee, given time for special projects or helped organize meetings? (Y/N)

(21) In the past five years, have you served on the board or been an officer of the organization? (Y/N)

(22) Does this organization sometimes take stands on any public issues—either locally or nationally? (Y/N)

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### *Independent Variables*

The study's three main independent variables are (1) resources, (2) psychological engagement, and (3) recruitment networks (see Table 3.3).

#### *Resources*

Verba et al. (1995) define resources as the time, money, and civic skills necessary for an individual to participate in the political process. As described below, responses for resources were coded so that having more time, money, and civic skills resulted in higher scores. The scores for time, money, and civic skills were then summed to create an index of resources.

*Time:* Table 3.3 lists the items that Verba et al. (1995) use to measure time. The responses are totaled and free time was calculated as the number of hours remaining after necessary activities are subtracted from the 24-hour day.

*Money:* This variable was measured by the participant's annual household income, which is categorized as: under \$15,000, \$15,000-\$34,999, \$35,000-\$49,999, \$50,000-\$74,999, \$75,000-\$124,999, and over \$125,000 (see Table 3.3). Categories are coded 1-6; higher numbers reflect higher income levels.

*Civic Skills :* Table 3.3 lists the items Verba et al. (1995) used to measure civic skills. Responses were yes or no with yes scored as 1 and no scored as 0. Scores were then summed to create an index of civic skills with a range of 0 to 8.

Verba and colleagues (1995) provided no evidence of reliability or validity for the scale of civic skills; however, Ritter (2006) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .42 for this scale. In the current study Cronbach's alpha was higher at .645. Ideally, Cronbach's alpha should be as close to 1.0 as possible, with .7 often considered a minimum; however, with short scales, low Cronbach values are not uncommon (Pallant, 2001).

Table 3.3: Description of Resources

Variable	Measurement Items
Time	<p>(1) About how many hours per day do you spend on necessary work for your home and family including cooking, cleaning, taking care of children or other relatives, shopping, house and yard chores and so forth? ____ (Number)</p> <p>(2) About how many hours in total do you spend in an average day on such necessary activities for home and family? ____ (Number)</p> <p>(3) About how many hours do you spend on gainful employment on an average day, including commuting and work that you take home? ____ (Number)</p> <p>(4) About how many hours do you spend studying for a degree or enrolled in courses for a degree in an average day? ____ (Number)</p> <p>(5) About how many hours of sleep do you average a night? ____ (Number)</p> <p>The responses are totaled and free time is calculated as the time remaining after necessary activities are subtracted from the 24 hour day.</p>
Money	<p>Annual Household Income</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Under \$15,000</li> <li>2. \$15,000-\$34,999</li> <li>3. \$35,000-\$49,999</li> <li>4. \$50,000-\$74,999</li> <li>5. \$75,000-\$124,999</li> <li>6. Over \$125,000</li> </ol>
Civic Skills	<p>(1) Here is a list of things that people sometimes have to do as part of their job or as part of their involvement with organizations. Please indicate whether or not you have engaged in each activity as part of your job or as part of your involvement with an organization in the last six months.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Written a letter (yes/no)</li> </ol>

- b. Gone to a meeting where you took part in making decision (yes/no)
  - c. Planned or chaired a meeting (yes/no)
  - d. Given a presentation or a speech (yes/no)
- (2) Aside from activity associated with a church or synagogue, in the past twelve months did you spend any time on charitable or voluntary service activities—that is actually working in some way to help others for no monetary pay? (Y/N)
- (3) Do you belong to or are you a member of a church, synagogue or other religious institution in this or a nearby community? (Y/N)
- (4) Aside from attending services, in the past twelve months have you been an active member of your church/synagogue, have you served on a committee, given time for special projects or helped organize meetings? (Y/N)
- (5) In the past five years, have you served on a board or held an official position in your church/synagogue? (Y/N)
- Coded: 1 – Yes, 0– No; Scores are added to create an index of Civic Skills
- 

### *Psychological Engagement*

Verba et al. (1995) operationalize respondents' psychological engagement as a combination of their interest in politics, knowledge about politics, political efficacy, and degree of partisanship (see Table 3.4). Partisanship was measured but was not included in the index of psychological engagement since these questions did not reflect the extent of an individual's engagement; rather, they reflect the strength of respondents' political ideologies and conservative or liberal nature of the respondents' political inclinations. This variable will be reported as descriptive information only rather than included in the index of psychological engagement. Responses to all psychological engagement questions were coded so that higher levels of political interest, information, and efficacy resulted in higher scores on their respective indexes. The scores of each of the three



indexes were then summed to create an overall index of psychological engagement with a range of 0 to 35.

Verba et al. (1995) did not provide information on the reliability or validity of this scale. In the current study, Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .767.

*Political Interest:* Table 3.4 lists the items Verba et al. (1995) used to measure political interest. The answers to questions 1, 2, and 3 are Not interested at all, Slightly interested, Somewhat interested, and Very interested and are coded from 0 to 3, respectively. The answers to questions 4 and 5 are Never, Less than once a week, Once or twice a week, Nearly every day, Every day, and are coded from 0 to 4, respectively. Higher scores, therefore, indicate more interest or engagement in discussion. Scores were summed to create an index of political interest with a range of 0-17.

*Political Information:* Table 3.4 lists the items Verba et al. (1995) used to measure an individual's level of political information. Questions were scored so that correct responses were coded as 1 and incorrect responses were coded as 0. Scores were then summed to create an index of political information with a range of 0 to 6.

*Political Efficacy:* Table 3.4 lists the items Verba et al. (1995) used to measure political efficacy. The response categories for questions 1 and 2 about how much influence individuals think they have in the political process are None at all, A little, A moderate amount, A lot and are coded from 0 to 3, respectively. The response categories for Questions 3 and 4 are None at all, Very little

attention to what you say, Some attention to what you say, A lot of attention to what you say and are coded from 0 to 4, respectively. Higher scores, therefore, indicate higher feelings of efficacy. Scores were then summed to create an index of political efficacy with a range of 0 to 12.

Table 3.4: Description of Psychological Engagement

Variable	Measurement Items
Political interest	<p>(1) Thinking about your <u>local</u> community, how interested are you in <u>local community</u> politics and local community affairs?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Very interested</li> <li>b. Somewhat interested</li> <li>c. Slightly interested</li> <li>d. Not interested at all</li> </ul> <p>(2) How interested are you in <u>national</u> politics and <u>national</u> affairs?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Very interested</li> <li>b. Somewhat interested</li> <li>c. Slightly interested</li> <li>d. Not interested at all</li> </ul> <p>(3) How interested are you in politics and public affairs?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Very interested</li> <li>b. Somewhat interested</li> <li>c. Slightly interested</li> <li>d. Not interested at all</li> </ul> <p>(4) How often do you discuss local community politics or local community affairs with others?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Every day</li> <li>b. Nearly every day</li> <li>c. Once or twice a week</li> <li>d. Less than once a week</li> <li>e. Never</li> </ul> <p>(5) How often do you discuss national politics and national affairs with others?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Every day</li> <li>b. Nearly every day</li> <li>c. Once or twice a week</li> <li>d. Less than once a week</li> <li>e. Never</li> </ul> <p>The responses are summed to create an overall index of political interest.</p>

Political information

(1) We are interested in how much people know about American government. On average over the past few years, did the federal government spend more money on the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) or Social Security?

- a. NASA
- b. Social Security

(23) Does the Fifth Amendment to the American Constitution mainly guarantee citizens protection against forced confessions, or mainly guarantee freedom of speech?

- a. Protection against forced confessions
- b. Guarantees freedom of speech

(3) When people talk about “civil liberties,” do they usually mean the right to vote and run for office, or freedom of speech, press and assembly?

- a. Right to vote and run for office
- b. Freedom of speech, press and assembly

(4) Which is the major difference between democracies and dictatorships: that democratic governments allow private property, or that democratic governments allow citizens to choose their representatives freely?

- a. Democratic governments allow private property
- b. Democratic governments allow citizens to choose their representatives freely

(5) Now, I have just a few questions about your knowledge of politics and your feelings about government. How old do you have to be to vote? \_\_\_\_\_

(6) Which party has more members in the United States House of Representatives—the Democrats or the Republicans?

- a. Democrats
- b. Republicans

The responses are coded and summed to create an index of political information.

Political efficacy

(1) How much influence do you think someone like you can have over local government decisions?

- a. None at all
- b. A little
- c. A moderate amount
- d. A lot

(2) How much influence do you think someone like you can have over national government decisions?

Coded:

- a. None at all
- b. A little

- c. A moderate amount
- d. A lot

(3) If you had some complaint about a local government activity and took that complaint to a member of the local government council, do you think that he or she would pay:

- a. A lot of attention to what you say
- b. Some attention to what you say
- c. Very little attention to what you say
- d. None at all

(4) If you had some complaint about a state or national government activity and took that complaint to a member of the national government, do you think that he or she would pay:

- a, A lot of attention to what you say
- b, Some attention to what you say
- c, Very little attention to what you say
- d, None at all

The responses are summed to create an index of political efficacy.

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### *Recruitment Networks*

This variable represents the extent of individuals' participation in social networks that may solicit their participation in the political process. Participants were asked if a close friend, their employer, a religious organization, or a non-political organization had asked them to vote and/or take part in a political activity, and if they had been asked, what the frequency of the requests were, and whether or not they responded to the request (see Table 3.5). Questions with a yes or no response were coded with 1 and 0 respectively, so that more participation resulted in higher scores. On two questions about membership on a local board (#13 and #15), an affirmative response resulted in a skip pattern that added two questions about the frequency of attendance. The response

“regularly” was coded as a two and the response “once in awhile” was coded as a one. Scores were then summed to create the political participation index with a possible range from 0 to 32.

Verba and colleagues (1995) provided no evidence of this scale’s reliability or validity; however, Ritter (2006) reported a Cronbach’s alpha of .64. In the current study, Cronbach’s alpha was lower at .49.

Table 3.5: Description of Recruitment Networks

Variable	Measurement Items
Recruitment networks	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) In the past twelve months have you received any personal requests directed at you to take part in campaign work, participate in a protest or community activity (service on a board, attendance at board meetings or informal activity) or soliciting a contribution? (Y/N)</li> <li>2) If yes: Did this happen once or more than once in the past twelve months? Once/More than once</li> <li>3) Was the request made by a close friend or relative? (Y/N)</li> <li>4) In the past five years did someone in authority on the job, in church or in organizations you are affiliated with such as NAADAC ever suggest that you personally vote for or against certain candidates in an election for public office? (Y/N)</li> <li>5) In the past five years did someone in authority on the job, in church or in organizations you are affiliated with such as NAADAC ever suggest that you take some other action on a political issue such as signing a petition, writing a letter, or contacting a public official? (Y/N)</li> <li>6) How often do you receive requests through the mail asking you to donate to political organizations, political causes, or candidates? <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Weekly</li> <li>b. Monthly</li> <li>c. Rarely</li> <li>d. Never</li> </ol> </li> <li>7) In the past twelve months, have you sent any money in response to such mail requests? (Y/N)</li> <li>8) Over the past five years have you been to a meeting in a church/synagogue/mosque about some local or</li> </ol>

- national political issue or problem? (Y/N)
- 9) Over the past five years, has anyone in your church/synagogue/mosque--a member of the clergy or someone in an official position—ever suggested that you vote for or against certain candidates in an election? (Y/N)
- 

### *Control Variables*

Table 3.6 lists the items used to measure the control variables age, gender race/ethnicity, professional credentials, and recovery status. Age, gender, and race/ethnicity have all been documented as predictors of political participation and will be controlled for in this study to allow for a more precise determination of the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable, political participation. Age has been referred to as second only to education as a predictor of political participation, while gender differences are significant but less so than age. There are also significant differences in political participation by racial/ethnic group. The variable professional credentials will be measured by whether or not the participant possesses professional certification or license in addition to their NAADAC certification. Professional credentials will be used in lieu of education since advanced degrees are commonly required for licensure or certification. Recovery status is being controlled to determine whether the culture of service within the recovering community has an influence on the individual's political participation.

Table 3.6: Description of Control Variables

Variable	Measurement Items
Recovery status	Are you recovering from alcohol or other drug addiction? (Y/N/Prefer not to respond)
Credentials	Do you hold a license or certification with any other professional accrediting board? (Y/N) If yes: How many license/certifications? _____ What field is your license/certification? a. Bachelor's social worker b. Master's social worker c. Professional counselor d. Marriage & family e. Mental health counselor f. IC & RC Certification g. Other: _____
Race/ethnicity	a. White b. African American c. Hispanic/Latino d. American Indian e. Asian Pacific Islander g. Other: _____
Age	a. Under 25 b. 25-34 c. 35-44 d. 45-54 e. 55-64 f. 65 and over
Gender	a. Male b. Female

### *Alcohol and Other Drug Policy*

Table 3.7 lists the items used to explore the respondents' awareness of alcohol and drug policy and participation and interest in efforts to influence alcohol and other drug policy. Descriptive statistics only will be reported for these questions; they were not included in the multivariate analyses.

Table 3.7: Alcohol and Other Drug Policy

Variable	Measurement Items
Alcohol and drug policy	1) Are you aware of efforts by non-governmental organizations such as Faces and Voices of Recovery, Drug Policy Alliance or the Legal Action Center to influence alcohol and drug policy? (Y/N) 2) Are you aware of efforts by NAADAC to influence alcohol and drug policy? (Y/N) 3) Have you ever attended NAADAC's Advocacy Conference? (Y/N) 4) Have you ever received a request from NAADAC to participate in any type of political activity focused on alcohol and other drug policy? 5) Do you think state and federal policies should focus on alcohol and drug addiction as: 1) More of a public safety issue 2) More of a public health issue 3) Equally between the two 4) Maintain current focus on the two

#### *Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale*

An 8-item Marlow-Crowne scale was included to evaluate social desirability bias (Ray, 1984). The Marlowe-Crowne was placed at the end of the survey with all 8-items clustered together. Ray (1984) validated this instrument with the items scattered throughout a survey using a random sample of 214 individuals and reported an alpha of .74. He validated it again with the 8-items presented in a block and reported an alpha of .74 indicating that placement did not impact the scale's reliability (Ray, 1984). In the current study, Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .71, which falls within the acceptable range. Responses were yes or no, with yes coded as a 1 and no coded as a 2.



## *Data Analysis*

### *Sample Characteristics*

The original sample included 761 respondents with 80.8% of the participants reaching the end of the survey; however, some respondents who reached the end of the survey did not answer all questions; thus, data are missing for some items. An analysis was conducted to determine the number of participants that completed enough of the survey to calculate an index of political participation, the study's dependent variable. This resulted in the elimination of 87 cases, leaving a sample of 674 cases. The data were analyzed to compare this sample with the known demographics of the NAADAC membership. The sample was then reviewed to evaluate how many of the remaining cases completed enough of the survey to compute an index of the independent variables resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks. The sample was examined case by case to make sure that low scores on the indexes were the result of scores based on their responses rather than missing data due to not completing all survey items. Each case with a low score on two of the three indexes was examined closely to determine whether at least half of the questions for that variable had been answered. A low score on all three independent variables might be consistent with low participation whereas a low score on one or two independent variables might indicate the participant did not complete the survey. If half of the questions in the survey were not answered, the case was

eliminated. This process reduced the sample by an additional 41 cases leaving a sample of 633 for the study.

The demographics of the final sample of 633 cases were compared to (1) the demographics of the sample of 674 (those who answered items on the dependent variable, political participation, but not a sufficient number of independent variable items) to determine if those who completed enough of the survey to be included in the statistical analyses were similar or different from those who did not, and (2) the demographics of the NAADAC membership to determine how similar respondents were to the overall membership. Information from these comparisons is presented in Table 3.8. It was not possible to make demographics comparisons with the original sample of the 761 who began the survey because the demographic information was collected at the end of the survey and therefore was not available for the initial 87 cases that were eliminated from the study. As indicated in Table 3.8, the samples of 633 and 674 were nearly identical.

These samples were also very similar to the known characteristics of the NAADAC membership (information available for 6,241 members). Of the demographic variables available for comparison, the primary difference involved education: compared to the NAADAC members, the study sample contained fewer participants whose highest education was a high school diploma or its equivalent and more participants whose highest degree was an associate degree

or an associate's degree. The groups were similar on other educational levels and other variables.

Table 3.8: Demographic Comparison of the Sample

	<b><i>Final Sample N=633 Frequency # (%)</i></b>	<b><i>Sample N=674 Frequency # (%)</i></b>	<b><i>NAADAC Information* N=6,241 <u>NAADAC Members</u> # (%)</i></b>
<b><i>Certified/Licensed as</i></b>			
Alcoholism/Drug Abuse Counselor	NA	NA	4,971 (79.7%)
Prevention Specialist	NA	NA	213 (3.4%)
Clinical Supervisor	NA	NA	793 (12.7%)
Licensed Professional Counselor	155 (24.4%)	167 (24.7%)	1,369 (21.9%)
Rehabilitation Counselor			104 (1.7%)
Social Worker	90 (14.3%)	97 (14.3)	898 (14.4%)
Psychologist	NA	NA	143 (2.3%)
Nurse	NA	NA	166 (2.7%)
Physician	NA	NA	7 (0.1%)
Psychiatrist	NA	NA	8 (0.1%)
Clergy	NA	NA	155 (2.5%)
Other	NA	NA	424 (6.8%)
<b><i><u>Highest Degree Earned</u></i></b>			
High School Diploma/Equivalent	11 (1.8%)	11 (1.8%)	506 (8.1%)
Associate Degree	80 (13.1%)	80 (13.0%)	390 (6.2%)
Bachelor's Degree	108 (17.7%)	111 (18.1%)	1,184 (18.9%)
Master's Degree	350 (57.4%)	351 (57.2%)	3,486 (55.6%)
Doctoral Degree	58 (9.5%)	58 (9.5%)	550 (8.8%)
Other	NA	NA	<u>155 (2.5%)</u>
<b><i><u>Race</u></i></b>			
Caucasian	511 (87.8%)	514 (87.7%)	5,348 (86.0%)
Native American	9 (1.5%)	9 (1.5%)	92 (1.5%)
African American	36 (6.2%)	37 (6.3%)	533 (8.6%)
Hispanic/Latino	22 (3.8%)	22 (3.8%)	143 (2.3%)
Asian/Pacific Islander	4 (.7%)	4 (.7%)	30 (0.5%)
Other			<u>74 (1.2%)</u>
<b><i><u>Gender</u></i></b>			
Male	265 (44.3%)	266 (44.2%)	2,840 (45.5%)
Female	333 (55.7%)	336 (55.8%)	<u>3,406 (54.5%)</u>

\*NAADAC, the Association for Addiction Professionals, December 31, 2007

### *Descriptive Statistics*

Preliminary data analysis included descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, means, etc.) to examine participants' characteristics, as well as the distribution of each variable. These analyses were also used to determine if the data met the assumptions or criteria for inclusion in the multivariate analyses; this information is presented in Chapter 4. The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) 16.0 was used to analyze descriptive statistics.

### *T-tests and ANCOVA*

T-tests were used to determine if subgroups compared in this study, recovering individuals vs. those who are not recovering, and social workers vs. members who are not social workers, differed in terms of their political participation index. ANCOVA was used to determine if the subgroups of those who were certified, those with no certification and those with certification plus professional credentials differed in terms of their political participation index. Statistical Analysis Software (SAS) 9.2 was used to conduct the t-tests and ANCOVA.

### *Multivariate Analyses*

The primary statistical method used to answer the multivariate research questions was hierarchical multiple regression. Hierarchical multiple regression was selected because it allows the researcher to measure the effect of multiple independent variables in the study (resources, recruitment networks, and psychological engagement) on the dependent variable, political participation,

while controlling for recovery status, professional credentials, race, gender, and age. The level of measurement required for hierarchical multiple regression is metric or dichotomous for the independent variables and metric for the dependent variable, as was the case in this study. Statistical Analysis Software (SAS) 9.2 was used to conduct the hierarchical multiple regression.

#### *Human Subjects Protection*

As noted, Survey Monkey allowed for substantial protection of participants' identity and no identifying information was collected on the survey. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of Texas at Austin. The study cover letter which describes the study and the human subjects protection procedures is found in Appendix C.

## **Chapter 4**

### **Findings**

This chapter begins by describing the demographic characteristics of the sample as well as participants' ideology, recovery status, and obligation to advocate for alcohol and other drug (AOD) policy. Each research question is then presented followed by a report of the findings, which answers each specific research question. Tables are presented to show the frequencies for measures of political participation, psychological engagement, recruitment networks, and resources, as well as the findings of the multivariate analyses reflecting the influence of psychological engagement, recruitment networks, and resources on political participation.

#### *Demographics of the Sample*

The sample used for the analysis consisted of 633 cases. The sample's demographic characteristics are reported in Table 4.1. The participants were predominantly white (87.8%), with African Americans making up 6.2%, Hispanic/Latino 3.8%, American Indian 1.5%, and Asian/Pacific Islander .7%. Females were 55.7% of the sample and males 44.3%. Participants aged 45 and over made up over 80% of the sample, while individuals under age 25 accounted for only 1%.

The generally low educational attainment of addiction professionals has been noted in the literature (West, Mustaine, & Wyrick, 1999), but it was not evident in this sample since the majority (66.9%) reported having a master's

degree or higher. Only 2.3% had a high school diploma or less. The majority of the sample reported their political ideology as Democrat (58.6%) followed by Independent (21.1%), Republican (17.9%), and Libertarian (2.3%).

Of particular interest in this study were individuals' recovery status and its relationship to political participation. As Table 4.1 shows, almost half the sample (47.7%) reported they were recovering from AOD addiction, while 49.3% were not recovering and 3% preferred not to respond. The majority of those recovering or who preferred not to respond (74.2%) indicated that they did feel an obligation to participate in initiatives to influence alcohol and drug policy. (Members who indicated they were not recovering were not asked this question.)

Table 4.1: Sample Characteristics (N=633)

Race/Ethnicity	Number (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
White	511 (87.8%)
African American	36 (6.2%)
Hispanic/Latino	22 (3.8%)
American Indian	9 (1.5%)
Asian Pacific Islander	4 (.7%)
Missing	51
Gender	
Male	265 (44.3%)
Female	333 (55.7%)
Missing	35
Age	
Under 25	6 (1.0%)
25-34	24 (3.9%)
35-44	70 (11.4%)
45-54	196 (32.0%)
55-64	240 (39.2%)
65 and over	76 (12.4%)
Missing	21
Education	
Less than high school diploma	3 (.5%)
High school diploma/GED	11 (1.8%)
Some college	80 (13.1%)
Bachelors degree	108 (17.7%)

Masters degree	350 (57.4%)
Ph.D/M.D./D.D.S./J.D.	58 (9.5%)
Missing	23
Ideology	
Republican	108 (17.9%)
Democrat	353 (58.6%)
Independent	127 (21.1%)
Libertarian	14 (2.3%)
Missing	31
Recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction	
Yes	302 (47.7%)
No	312 (49.3%)
Prefer not to respond	19 (3%)
Missing	0
Recovering members & those who preferred not to respond – obligation to advocate for alcohol and other drug policy	
Yes	238 (74.2%)
No	57 (17.8%)
Unsure	26 (8.0%)
Missing	0

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

### *Professional Credentials*

Professional credentials, which generally require higher education, were used as a control variable in this study since the literature consistently indicates that higher educational attainment is correlated with political participation. The frequencies for professional credentials are noted in Table 4.2. Though everyone in the sample is a NAADAC member, over half the sample (55.2%) reported they were not certified through NAADAC. Among the sample, 15.5% held the Masters Addiction Counselor certification while 15.1% were National Certified Addiction Counselor II, and 11.1% were National Certified Addiction Counselor I. The majority (86.9%) reported they held another license or certification. Of those who held additional licenses or certifications, 44.6% reported a certification through



the International Certification and Reciprocity Consortium (IC&RC), a professional organization which also certifies addiction professionals, 25.2% were Professional Counselors, and 17.3% were social workers licensed at the bachelors or master's level.

Table 4.2: Certification & Professional Credentials (N=633)

	Number (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
National Certified Addiction Counselor I	69 (11.1%)
National Certified Addiction Counselor II	94 (15.1%)
Masters Addiction Counselor	109 (17.4%)
Tobacco Addiction Specialist	5 (.8%)
Certificate in Spiritual Caregiving	3 (.5%)
Not certified through NAADAC	344 (55.1%)
Missing	9
Other professional license/certification	
Yes	550 (86.9%)
No	83 (13.1%)
Missing	0
Field of license/certification	
Bachelors social worker	12 (2.3%)
Masters social worker	77 (15%)
Professional counselor	130 (25.2%)
Marriage & family	21 (4%)
Mental health counselor	39 (7.6%)
IC&RC certification	230 (44.6%)
Other	7 (1.3%)
Missing	34

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

### *Alcohol and Other Drug Policy*

The descriptive statistics reflecting the full sample's awareness, participation, and interest in alcohol and other drug policy is presented in Table 4.3. When asked what they thought the focus of state and federal alcohol policy should be, 1.9% of the respondents selected more of a public safety issue,

40.7% more of a public health concern, 46.4% indicated equally between the two, and 11.0% indicated the current focus should be maintained. When asked about their awareness of nongovernmental initiatives to influence alcohol and other drug policy, 65.4% of the participants indicated they were aware of these efforts to influence alcohol and other drug policy and 34.6% were not. Of the sample, 91.0% indicated they were aware of NAADAC's efforts to influence alcohol and drug policy. Only 13.3% of the participants reported they had attended the NAADAC sponsored Advocacy Conference. The majority of the participants (59.1%) reported they had received a request from NAADAC to participate in any type of political activity focused on alcohol and other drug policy.

Table 4.3: Alcohol and Other Drug Policy (N=633)

Focus of policy	Number (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
More of a public safety issue	12 (1.9%)
More of a public health issue	252 (40.7%)
Equally between the two	287 (46.4%)
Maintain current focus	68 (11.0%)
Missing	14
Awareness of nongovernmental organizations efforts to influence AOD policy	
Yes	412 (65.4%)
No	218 (34.6%)
Missing	3
Awareness of NAADAC efforts to influence AOD policy	
Yes	576 (91%)
No	57 (9%)
Missing	0
Attended NAADAC advocacy conference	
Yes	82 (13.3%)
No	546 (86.8%)
Missing	5

Received an advocacy request from NAADAC	
Yes	371 (59.1%)
No	257 (40.9%)
Missing	5

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<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

### *Research Questions*

#### **1) In what civic and political activities do NADAAC members participate and what is the extent of their participation in these activities?**

Political participation was measured using a scale containing 22 political activities, with a possible scoring range from 0 to 32. The mean political participation index (PPI) and frequencies of each political activity for the full sample are presented in Table 4.4. For the full sample, the mean political participation index was 19.06 (SD=5.32, range 4-32). The four political activities with the highest participation rates were: (1) registered to vote (96.4%), (2) membership in a civic or political group (97.3%), (3) attended a meeting of a civic or political group in the last 12 months (75.7%), and (4) chatted informally about politics (88.1%). NAADAC members reported the lowest participation in the following four political activities: (1) volunteered for a political candidate (16.8%), (2) participated in a protest (19.7%), (3) volunteered within the community (28.6%), and (4) contacted federal nonelected officials (37.7%). When asked about presidential elections since they were old enough to vote, 64.1% of participants reported that they voted in all of them and 24.3% had voted in most

of them, whereas 23.7% reported voting in all previous local elections, and 49.8% reported voting in most previous local elections.

Table 4.4: Full Sample: Measures of Political Participation (N=633)

Political participation index	Mean	19.06	SD 5.32	Range 4-32
	Yes (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	No (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Missing	
Registered to vote	610 (97.3%)	23 (2.7%)	6	
Volunteered for a candidate	106 (16.8%)	526 (83.2%)	1	
Contributed to a campaign	292 (46.3%)	338 (53.7%)	3	
Volunteers within the community	180 (28.6%)	449 (71.4%)	4	
Attended a local board/council meeting	273 (43.1%)	360 (56.9%)	0	
Frequency of attendance	Regularly	Once in Awhile		
	82 (30%)	191 (70%)	0	
Informal work on community issue	408 (64.7%)	223 (35.3%)	2	
Contacted federal elected officials	400 (63.5%)	230 (36.5%)	3	
Contacted federal nonelected official	238 (37.7%)	393 (62.3%)	2	
Contacted state elected official	385 (60.8%)	247 (39.1%)	1	
Contacted state nonelected official	278 (44.2%)	351 (55.8%)	4	
Participated in a protest	124 (19.7%)	504 (80.3%)	5	
Member of a civic group	578 (91.3%)	55 (8.7%)	0	
Attended a meeting in last 12 months	476 (75.7%)	153 (24.3%)	4	
Political discussions on the agenda	354 (63.4%)	204 (36.6%)	75	
Chat informally about politics	488 (88.1%)	66 (11.9%)	79	
Active member in civic group	329 (52.0%)	147 (23.2%)	157	
Served as board member or officer	278 (58.3%)	197 (41.7%)	156	
Civic group takes public stand on issues	320 (68.5%)	147 (31.5%)	166	
Previous voting patterns	Number (% <sup>a, b</sup> )			
Presidential elections				
All of them	404 (64.1%)			
Most of them	153 (24.3%)			
Some of them	49 (7.8%)			
Rarely voted in them	12 (1.9%)			
Never voted in them	12 (1.9%)			
Missing	3			
Previous local elections				
All of them	150 (23.7%)			
Most of them	315 (49.8%)			
Some of them	122 (19.3%)			
Rarely voted in them	31 (4.9%)			
Never voted in them	14 (2.2%)			
Missing	1			

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

**1a.) Is there a difference in the civic and political participation of NAADAC members who report they are recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction and those who report they are not recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction?**

Of the full sample of 633, 302 members indicated they were recovering from AOD addiction, 312 indicated they were not recovering, 19 members preferred not to respond. The mean political participation indices (PPI) for both groups are presented in Table 4.5. The mean PPI for individuals recovering from alcohol and other drug (AOD) addiction was slightly higher (mean=19.37, SD=5.49, range 6-32) than the mean PPI for individuals who were not recovering from AOD addiction (mean=18.90, SD=5.20, range 4-30), but the difference was not statistically significant ( $t=0.96$ ,  $p=0.5383$ ). Both groups, members who are recovering from AOD addiction and those who are not recovering from AOD addiction, reported the highest participation in the following activities: 1) registered to vote, 2) membership in a civic or political group and 3) chatted informally about politics. Both groups were also similar in the political activities they participated in the least: 1) volunteered for a candidate, 2) participated in a protest, and 3) volunteered in the community. There was minimal variation in the levels of participation by activities except for voted in presidential elections and contacted federal nonelected officials. More members who were not recovering from AOD addiction (71.3%) reported voting in all the presidential elections than members who are recovering from AOD addiction (57.3%). However, members

recovering from AOD addiction (41.4%) reported they contacted federal nonelected officials more than members not recovering from AOD addiction (33.9%).

The Appendix section contains characteristics (see Appendix H) and measures of political participation (see Appendix F), resources (see Appendix G), psychological engagement (see Appendix H), recruitment networks (see Appendix I) and alcohol and drug policy (see Appendix J) for individuals recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction compared to those who are not recovering.

Table 4.5: Comparison of Mean Political Participation Indices Based on Recovery Status

	Recovering	Not Recovering
Mean	19.37	18.90
SD	5.49	5.20
Range	6-32	4-30

**Research Question 1 b) Is there a difference in the civic and political activity of NAADAC members who possess professional credentials in addition to NAADAC certification, members with NAADAC certification but no other professional credentials, and members with no certification?**

Of the full sample, 344 members (55.2%) indicated they were not certified through NAADAC, 42 (6.6%) held a NAADAC certification but no other professional credentials, and 238 (38.2%) held a NAADAC certification plus other professional credentials. The mean political participation indices (PPI) for all three groups are presented in Table 4.6. The mean PPI for members who were not certified was significantly lower than for members with a certification and

those with a certification and other professional credentials. For those who were not certified through NAADAC the mean PPI was 18.62 (SD=5.44, range 4-32), while the mean PPI for members with NAADAC certification but no other professional credentials was 19.14 (SD=5.69, range 6-29), and 19.69 (SD=5.06, range 6-30) for members who possess professional credentials in addition to NAADAC certification.

Those who were not certified through NAADAC, members with NAADAC certification but no other professional credentials, and members with a NAADAC certification plus other professional credentials were very similar in their reported political activities with the highest political participation on 1) registered to vote, 2) membership in a civic or political group and 3) chatted informally about politics. All three groups were also similar in the political activities they participated in the least: 1) volunteered for a candidate, 2) participated in a protest, and 3) volunteered in the community. Members with NAADAC certification but no other professional credentials reported lower participation than their colleagues who were not certified and those with a certification in addition to other professional credentials on the following activities: contributing to a campaign, attending a local board or council meeting, attending a meeting of a civic or political group within the last 12 months where political discussions were on the agenda or where the group took a public stand on an issue, and active membership in a civic or political group.

The Appendix section contains characteristics (see Appendix K) and measures of political participation (see Appendix L), resources (see Appendix M), psychological engagement (see Appendix N), recruitment networks (see Appendix O) and alcohol and drug policy (see Appendix P) for individuals who were not certified through NAADAC, those who held a NAADAC certification but no other professional credentials, and those who held a NAADAC certification plus other professional credentials.

Table 4.6: Comparison of Mean Political Participation Indices Based on Certification/Credentials

	Certified	Not Certified	Certified Plus Credentials
Mean	19.14	18.62	19.69
SD	5.69	5.44	5.06
Range	6-29	4-32	6-30

**Research Question 1 c) Is there a difference in the civic and political participation of NAADAC members who are social workers and those who are not social workers?**

Of the full sample, 89 members indicated they were social workers and 544 members were not social workers. The mean political participation indices (PPI) for both groups are presented in Table 4.7. The difference in social workers' mean political participation index (PPI) of 19.07 (SD 5.50, range 7-30), was not statistically significant from the mean score of other participants, 19.06 (SD 5.30, range 4-32) ( $t=0.03$ ;  $p=0.9723$ ). Both groups, those who are social workers and those who are not social workers, reported the highest participation in the following activities: 1) registered to vote, 2) membership in a civic or



political group, and 3) chatting informally about politics. Both groups were also similar in the political activities they participated in the least: 1) volunteering for a candidate, 2) participating in a protest, and 3) volunteering in the community. Social workers reported higher participation than nonsocial workers on the following activities: 1) attending meetings where political discussions are on the agenda, 2) voting in almost all the presidential elections, and 3) voting in most of the local elections. Members who are not social workers reported higher participation than social workers on attendance at a civic or political meeting in the last 12 months.

The Appendix section contains (see Appendix Q) and measures of political participation (see Appendix R), resources (see Appendix S), psychological engagement (see Appendix T), recruitment networks (see Appendix U) and alcohol and drug policy (see Appendix V) for members who are social workers and those who are not social workers.

Table 4.7: Comparison of Mean Political Participation Indices for Social Workers

	Social Workers	Not Social Workers
Mean	19.07	19.06
SD	5.50	5.30
Range	7-30	4-32

**Research Question 2) Do resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks predict political participation among NAADAC members?**

Hierarchical multiple regression was performed to determine the relationship between political participation and the independent variables resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks after controlling for the variables age, gender, race, recovery status, and professional credentials. Descriptive statistics for the control variables and the dependent variable, political participation, have already been discussed. The study's independent variables are described here before the hierarchical regression results are presented. Resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks were all significant predictors of political participation. Recruitment networks accounted for the greatest variance in political participation. Appendix W contains a correlation matrix of the independent and control variables.

### *Resources*

The frequencies for all measures of the variable resources are presented in Table 4.8. The resource variable includes measures of available time, money, and civic skills. The mean score for the Resource Index was 11.21 (SD 4.42, range 0-33). The variable time was positively skewed (1.34) and positive for kurtosis (3.62), therefore both the mean 3.58 (SD 3.28, range 0-22) and median, 3.0, are reported. Since it is reasonable that some participants could have large amounts of time available, all cases were retained in the sample. While skewness and kurtosis can impact the power of the statistical analysis, the sample is large enough to allow sufficient power to detect an effect. Income was measured by the participant's 2007 annual household income. More than 69% of

the sample reported a salary of \$50,000 or more. Only 10.2% reported an income under \$34,999, and 14.8% reported an income of \$35,000-\$49,999.

The Civic Skills index is a composite score from responses to 8 items and is designed to measure opportunities to develop civic skills. The mean score for Civic Skills was 3.78 (SD 2.18, range 0-8). A little more than half of the sample (54.1%) indicated they were members of a religious institution and almost all of those (53.2%) considered themselves an active member, indicating they had served on a committee, gave time for a special project, or helped organize meetings. Aside from membership on a board or council, 64.2% indicated they had participated in charitable work in their community or neighborhood during the past 12 months to deal with a community issue. The activity with the highest participation was writing a letter (65%) followed by making decisions in a meeting (60.2%). The activity with the lowest reported participation was serving as a board member or officer in a religious institution of which they were a member (41.8%).

Table 4.8: Frequencies of Measures of Resources (Time, Income, and Civic Skills)  
(N=633)

Resources	Mean - 11.21	SD - 4.42	Range 0-33
Time	Mean - 3.58	Median – 3	SD – 3.28
Income			
		Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	
Under \$15,000		7 (1.2%)	
\$15,000-\$34,999		64 (10.7%)	
\$35,000-\$49,000		94 (15.7%)	
\$50,000-\$74,999		161 (26.8%)	
\$75,000-\$124,999		182 (30.4%)	
Over \$125,000		91 (15.2%)	
Missing data		34	
Civic Skills	Mean - 3.78	SD - 2.18	Range 0-8
		Yes (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	No (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
Member of a religious institution		340 (54.1%)	289 (45.9%)
Active member of religious institution		181 (53.2%)	159 (46.8%)
Served as board member/officer in a religious institution		141 (41.8%)	196 (58.2%)
Charitable work in the community		405 (64.2%)	226 (35.8%)
Activities of job or organization:			
Written a letter		400 (65%)	215 (35%)
Made decisions in a meeting		369 (60.2%)	244 (39.8%)
Planned/chaired a meeting		259 (42.5%)	350 (57.5%)
Presentation or speech		309 (50.7%)	301 (49.3%)

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

### *Psychological Engagement*

The descriptive statistics for the independent variable psychological engagement are presented in Table 4.9. Psychological engagement includes three components measuring political interest, political efficacy, and political information. The mean psychological engagement index score was 30.84, (SD 5.06, range 12-35). The majority of survey participants reported they were very

interested in national politics (62.7%) and nearly half report they are very public affairs (46.8%); a smaller number (40.3%) reported they were very interested in local politics. Most members (78.6%) indicated they discuss national politics at least once or twice a week or more.

Measures of political efficacy asked participants about their perceived ability to command the attention of or influence local, state, or national government. When asked what would happen if they took a complaint to an elected state or national official, the largest group (45.2%) reported they felt federal officials would pay some attention, while 42% felt they would receive very little attention. Most respondents (58.3%) felt state or local elected officials would pay some attention, while 25.2% thought they would pay very little attention.

Respondents felt they had more influence over national decisions than local decisions. A little more than half the sample (51%) reported they thought someone like them had some influence over national government decisions, while only 31.2% reported they thought someone like them had some influence over local or state government decisions.

To measure political information, participants were asked six questions about their political knowledge. These were basic questions about characteristics of a democracy, the protection offered by the Fifth amendment, the meaning of civil liberties, which party has a majority in the U.S. House of Representatives, the magnitude of budgets of NASA versus Social Security, and the legal age to vote. The vast majority of the respondents (97.3%) correctly indicated the

difference between a democracy and a dictatorship, however only 43.8% correctly indicated that the budget for Social Security exceeded the budget for NASA.

Table 4.9: Frequencies of Measures of Psychological Engagement (N=633)

Psychological Engagement	Mean 30.84	SD - 5.06	Range 12-35
<b>Political Interest</b>			
		<b>Number (% <sup>a, b</sup>)</b>	
Interest in national politics			
Very interested		393 (62.7%)	
Somewhat interested		193 (30.8%)	
Slightly interested		33 (5.2%)	
Not interested at all		8 (1.3%)	
Missing		6	
Interest in local politics			
Very interested		252 (40.3%)	
Somewhat interested		265 (42.3%)	
Slightly interested		99 (15.8%)	
Not interested at all		10 (1.6%)	
Missing		7	
Interest in public Affairs			
Very interested		290 (46.8%)	
Somewhat interested		244 (39.3%)	
Slightly interested		66 (10.6%)	
Not interested at all		21 (3.3%)	
Missing		12	
		<b>Number (% <sup>a, b</sup>)</b>	
Discussion of national politics			
Daily		98 (15.8%)	
Nearly every day		165 (26.6%)	
Once or twice a week		225 (36.2%)	
Less than once a week		118 (19.0%)	
Never		15 (2.4%)	
Missing		12	
Discussion of local politics			
Daily		66 (10.6%)	
Nearly every day		127 (20.5%)	
Once or twice a week		214 (34.5%)	
Less than once a week		192 (30.9%)	
Never		22 (3.5%)	
Missing		12	
<b>Political efficacy</b>			
		<b>Number (% <sup>a, b</sup>)</b>	
Attention to a national complaint			
A lot of attention		40 (6.4%)	
Some attention		284 (45.2%)	
Very little attention		264 (42.0%)	

None		41 (6.5%)	
Missing		4	
Attention to a local complaint			
A lot of attention		88 (13.7%)	
Some attention		366 (58.3%)	
Very little attention		158 (25.2%)	
None		18 (2.9%)	
Missing		5	
Influence over national politics			
A lot of influence		27 (4.3%)	
Some influence		196 (31.2%)	
Very little influence		311 (49.5%)	
None		94 (15%)	
Missing		5	
Influence over local politics			
A lot of influence		53 (8.5%)	
Some influence		319 (51%)	
Very little influence		210 (33.6%)	
None		43 (6.9%)	
Missing		8	
<b>Political information</b>	<b>Correct</b>	<b>Incorrect</b>	<b>Missing</b>
Social Security	275 (43.8%)	353 (56.2%)	5
Fifth Amendment	398 (63.7%)	227 (36.3%)	8
Civil liberties	568 (90.9%)	57 (9.1%)	8
Democracy	613 (97.3%)	17 (2.7%)	3
Legal age to vote	513 (81.9%)	113 (18.1%)	7
US House majority	507 (81%)	119 (19%)	7

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

### *Recruitment Networks*

The frequencies for all items used to measure the recruitment networks variable are presented in Table 4.10. The mean recruitment networks index was 6.55 (SD 2.68, range 1-13). Most participants (74.6%) indicated they had received a request to take part in a campaign and 79.2% of them indicated they had received more than one request. Even though the majority (73.9%) of the most recent requests did not come from someone they knew, 42.4% responded positively to the request.

The majority of participants stated that authorities on the job, or in organizations with which they were affiliated had not suggested they vote for certain candidates (73.4%), but 69.3% indicated these authorities had suggested they take some other action on a political issue such as signing a petition, writing a letter, or contacting a public official. The current study indicates that most participants (76.8%) had not attended a meeting in a church, synagogue, or mosque about a local or national political issue or problem. The majority (84%) also reported that in the last five years no one in authority in their church, synagogue, or mosque had suggested that they vote for or against certain candidates. The frequency of requests to donate to political organizations, political causes, or candidates were fairly evenly distributed (weekly, 35.7%; monthly, 30.8%; and rarely, 29.7%); only 3.8% reporting they never received requests. Of those who received requests, about one-third (32.2%) reported they had sent money in response to the request.

Table 4.10: Frequencies of Measures of Recruitment Network

Recruitment Networks	Mean - 6.55	SD - 2.68	Range 1-13
	Number (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Number (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	
	Yes	No	Missing
Request to participate in a campaign	468 (74.6%)	159 (25.4%)	6
Frequency of requests			
Once	367 (79.2%)		8
More than Once	99 (20.8%)		
	Yes	No	Missing
Request was from someone they knew personally	134 (26.1%)	329 (73.9%)	11
Responded positively to request	215 (42.4%)	242 (57.6%)	17
Authority w/in organization ever suggest you:			
Vote for a candidate	163 (26.6%)	450 (73.4%)	20
Take other action on a political issue	417 (69.3%)	185 (30.7%)	31



Meeting in religious institution about politics	145 (23.2%)	481 (76.8%)	7
Religious institution ever suggest you			
Vote for a candidate	98 (16%)	513 (84%)	22
	Number (% <sup>a, b</sup> )		
Requests to donate to political organization			
Weekly	224 (35.7%)		
Monthly	193 (30.8%)		
Rarely	186 (29.7%)		
Never	24 (3.8%)		
Missing	6		
Sent money in response to request	Yes	No	Missing
	202 (32.2%)	425 (67.8%)	6

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<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

### *Regression Analysis*

The first step in the regression analysis was to run a hierarchical multiple regression to provide a baseline. This was followed by an analysis of missing data and verification that the ratio of valid cases was sufficient for the requirements of the analysis. If a variable in the regression model was missing, the case was excluded from the sample. The assumption of normality was tested and kurtosis was noted for the variable resources. This was not surprising given that it includes the measure of available time which was previously noted in Chapter 3 to indicate kurtosis in the distribution. Transformations of the variable resources were computed and the logarithmic transformation was selected for substitution to satisfy the assumption of normality. The assumptions of linearity and homogeneity of variance were evaluated and found not to be a problem.

An evaluation of outliers identified 38 cases where the probability of Mahalanobis  $D^2$  was  $p < .001$ . Cases are identified as outliers when the standard

deviation is  $\pm 3$  from the mean. These cases were examined closely to determine if they should be excluded. Given the variation in the variable time and its impact on the resource variable, their identification as outliers is not surprising. Close examination indicated that there were no clear patterns in the unusual combinations of values. There were cases with low scores on recruitment network as well as the variable resource networks. Many of the cases identified as outliers had modest scores on two of the three independent variables and a low score on the third independent variable. Since they were identified as outliers, an initial decision was made to delete the 38 cases for the analysis using the transformed variable for resources. A revised regression was then run that used the logarithmic transformation of resources and deleted the identified outliers. However, the revised regression model did not explain at least two percent more variance than explained by the baseline regression analysis, so the baseline model with all cases and the original form of the resource variable was used for the interpretation.

The baseline regression was run again to insure that multicollinearity was not a problem. This was confirmed since the tolerance values for all the independent variables were larger than .10. The independence of errors was verified since the Durbin Watson statistic fell within the acceptable range of 1.5 to 2.5.

The regression analyses for the full sample and for each of the subgroups were conducted in the following way. First, crude analyses were conducted to

determine the association of the control variables (age, gender, race/ethnicity, recovery status, certification status) with political participation by entering each of these variables into a regression equation. Then, the association of each of the three independent variables (resources, psychological engagement, recruitment networks) was assessed by entering each into a separate regression equation. Next, adjusted analyses were conducted by entering the control variables as a group followed by the independent variables in separate blocks.

### *Regression Results*

In hierarchical regression, the interpretation for the relationship focuses on the change in explained variance denoted by  $R^2$ . If the change in  $R^2$  is statistically significant, the relationship for the independent variables will also be significant. Results are reported showing the crude associations as well as the results for the adjusted analysis in Table 4.11. Based on the summary for the adjusted model, resources ( $F=47.24$ ,  $0<.0001$ ), psychological engagement ( $F=156.74$ ,  $p<.0001$ ), and recruitment networks ( $F=168.56$ ,  $p<.0001$ ) were all significant predictors of political participation. In total, the three independent variables accounted for 46.7% of the variance in political participation. The change in  $R^2$  as seen in Table 4.11 reflects the proportional reduction in error for predicting political participation for each independent variable. The variable resources accounted for the lowest change in  $R^2$  with 6.8%, while psychological engagement accounted for a 19.1% change in  $R^2$ , and recruitment networks reflected the highest change in  $R^2$  with 20.8%.

When the adjusted model was run, the addition of the control variables as a group was significantly associated with political participation ( $F=5.05$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). This association was mainly due to the association between political participation, and the control variables, age and gender (Table 4.11). In the crude model, for every 1-unit increase in the resources index, there was a 0.47-unit increase in political participation ( $F=92.27$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). When adjusted for the control variables, this association remained ( $F=47.24$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). A 1-unit increase in psychological engagement index was associated with a 0.55-unit increase in political participation ( $F=206.92$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). This association was similar when adjusted for the control variables ( $F=156.74$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ).

Recruitment networks, which observed the highest change in  $R^2$ , resulted in the highest change in political participation, with a 1-unit increase in the variable recruitment network was associated with a 1.07-unit increase in political participation ( $F=235.86$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). As with the other CVM factors, this association remained after adjusting for the control variables ( $F=168.56$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ).

Table 4.11: Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Influence of CVM Factors on Political Participation for the Full Sample

	Crude				Adjusted <sup>†</sup>			
	R <sup>2</sup>	B	F-value	p-value*	R <sup>2</sup> Change	β	F-value	p-value*
Control variables <sup>‡</sup>					0.106	-	5.05	<0.0001
Recovery status	0.002	-	0.62	0.54		-		
Professional credentials	0.010	-	6.41	0.01		-		
Age	0.077	-	10.17	<0.0001		-		
Gender	0.033	-	20.77	<0.0001		-		
Race	0.007	-	1.06	0.38		-		
Resources	0.138	0.47	92.27	<0.0001	0.068	0.40	47.24	<0.0001
Psychological engagement	0.264	0.55	206.92	<0.0001	0.191	0.51	156.74	<0.0001
Recruitment networks	0.291	1.07	235.86	<0.0001	0.208	0.97	168.56	<0.0001

\* p-value based on F-test

† adjusted for control variables

‡ control variables include Recovery status, professional credentials, age, race, gender

N=559

Validation analysis for the hierarchical multiple regression was conducted using a 75/25% cross-validation. The validation analysis requires that the regression model for the training sample (75%) replicate the pattern of statistical significance found in the full sample. The significance of the relationship between the independent variables (resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks) and the dependent variable (political participation) replicated the full data set. The pattern of significance for the individual relationships between the dependent variable political participation and the predictor variables resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment

networks was the same for the analysis using the full data set and the 75% training sample. The value of  $R^2$  for the validation sample was actually larger than the value of  $R^2$  for the training sample, implying a better fit than obtained for the training sample. The validation analysis supported the generalizability of the findings to the population represented by the sample.

**Research Question 2a) How do resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks compare in their influence on NAADAC members' political participation?**

The variable recruitment network was the strongest predictor of political participation accounting for the 20.8% change in  $R^2$ , followed by psychological engagement which accounted for a 19.1% change in  $R^2$ , and resources which accounted for 6.8% of the change in  $R^2$ .

**Research Question 2b) Are there differences in the influence of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks in predicting political participation among NAADAC members who report they are recovering from alcohol and/or other drug addiction and NAADAC members who report they are not recovering from alcohol and/or other drug addiction?**

Table 4.12 provides the results of the hierarchical multiple regression used to assess the differences of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks as predictors of political participation based on reported recovery status. Resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment

networks were all significant predictors of political participation for individuals recovering from AOD addiction and those not recovering from AOD addiction. Recruitment networks accounted for the greatest variance in political participation for those not recovering from AOD addiction however, psychological engagement accounted for the greatest variance for those recovering from AOD addiction. The validation analysis did not replicate the findings for those not recovering from AOD addiction.

Prior to the analysis, the data for individuals who reported they were recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction and those who indicated they were not recovering were separately evaluated for the ratio of valid cases, missing data, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and outliers. The number of individuals who chose not to respond about their recovery status (19) was too small for analysis and was not included in the regression analysis. If a variable in the regression model was missing, the case was excluded from the sample. Revised regression models for those who are recovering from AOD addiction and those who are not recovering were conducted using logarithmic transformations of the variable resource with outliers included. The revised models explained more of the variance than the baseline model, but the increase in  $R^2$  was less than 2%, indicating that the baseline model with all cases should be used for interpretation. Further evaluation satisfied the assumption of independence of errors and that multicollinearity was not a problem. Results are reported showing

the crude associations as well as the results for the adjusted analysis in Table 4.12.

For those who reported they were recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction, the adjusted model shows that resources ( $F=19.89$ ,  $0<.0001$ ), psychological engagement ( $F=78.10$ ,  $p<.0001$ ), and recruitment networks ( $F=69.55$ ,  $p<.0001$ ) were all significant predictors of political participation. In total these three independent variables accounted for 42.6% of the variance in political participation for NAADAC members who were recovering from AOD addiction. The change in  $R^2$  as seen in Table 4.12 reflects the proportional reduction in error for predicting political participation for each independent variable. The variable resources accounted for the lowest change in  $R^2$  at 4.8%, while psychological engagement accounted for a 19.7% change in  $R^2$ , and recruitment networks reflected a slightly lower change in  $R^2$  with 18.1%. The addition of the control variables as a group in the adjusted model was significantly associated with political participation ( $F=3.79$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). This association was due to the association between political participation and the control variables, age and gender (Table 4.12).

In the crude analysis, for NAADAC members who reported they were recovering from alcohol and/or other drug addictions, there was no association between political participation and the control variables professional credentials and race; however, there was an association between political participation and the control variables age ( $F=6.56$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ) and gender ( $F=15.69$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). In



this analysis a 1-unit increase in resources was associated with a 0.42-unit increase in political participation ( $F=38.05$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). This association remained after adjusting for the control variables, professional credentials, age, race, and gender ( $F=19.89$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). For every 1-unit increase in psychological engagement, political participation increased by 0.53 units ( $F=106.01$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). This association remained after adjusting for the control variables professional credentials, age, race, and gender ( $F=78.10$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). Finally, a 1-unit increase in recruitment networks was associated with a 1.05-unit increase in political participation ( $F=107.04$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), an association which remained after adjusting for the control variables ( $F=69.55$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ).

For NAADAC members who reported they were not recovering from alcohol and/or drug addictions, the adjusted model shows that resources ( $F=41.43$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), psychological engagement ( $F=64.42$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), and recruitment networks ( $F=77.84$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ) were all significant predictors of political participation. In total these three independent variables accounted for 51.8% of the total variance in political participation. The change in  $R^2$  as seen in Table 4.12 reflects the proportional reduction in error for predicting political participation of each independent variable. The variable resources accounted for the lowest change in  $R^2$  at 11.7%, while psychological engagement accounted for an 18.7% change in  $R^2$ , and recruitment networks reflected a slightly higher change in  $R^2$  with 21.4%. The addition of the control variables as a group was significantly associated with political participation ( $F=2.46$ ,  $p=0.002$ ). This association was

mainly due to the association between political participation and the control variables, age and gender (Table 4.12).

In the crude analysis, for NAADAC members who reported they were not recovering from AOD addiction, the control variables professional credentials and race were not associated with political participation, while age ( $F=3.85$ ,  $p=0.002$ ) and gender ( $F=4.31$ ,  $p=0.04$ ) were significantly associated with political participation. In this analysis a 1-unit increase in resources was associated with a 0.56-unit increase in political participation ( $F=58.54$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). This association remained after adjusting for the control variables, professional credentials, age, race, and gender ( $F=2.46$ ,  $p<0.002$ ). A 1-unit increase in psychological engagement was associated with a 0.55-unit increase in political participation ( $F=84.42$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). This association remained after adjusting for the control variables, professional credentials, age, race, and gender ( $F=64.42$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ); and a 1-unit increase in recruitment networks was associated with a 1.06 unit increase in political participation ( $F=101.81$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), an association that remained after adjusting for the control variables, professional credentials, age, race, and gender ( $F=77.84$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ).

Table 4.12. Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Influence of CVM Factors by Recovery Status

	Crude					Adjusted <sup>†</sup>		
	R <sup>2</sup>	β	F-value	p-value*	Change in R <sup>2</sup>	β	F-value	p-value*
<b>Recovering</b> (N=275)								
Control variables <sup>‡</sup>	-	-	-	-	0.126	-	3.79	<0.0001
Professional Credentials	0.006	-	1.74	0.19	-	-	-	-
Age	0.089	-	6.56	<0.0001	-	-	-	-
Gender	0.054	-	15.69	<0.0001	-	-	-	-
Race	0.022	-	1.54	0.19	-	-	-	-
Resources	0.119	0.42	38.05	<0.0001	0.048	0.29	19.89	<.0001
Psychological engagement	0.273	0.53	106.01	<0.0001	0.197	0.46	78.10	<0.0001
Recruitment networks	0.275	1.05	107.04	<0.0001	0.181	0.86	69.55	<0.0001
<b>Not recovering</b> (N=253)								
Control variables <sup>‡</sup>	-	-	-	-	0.10	-	2.46	0.002
Professional Credentials	0.014	-	3.74	0.05	-	-	-	-
Age	0.072	-	3.85	0.002	-	-	-	-
Gender	0.017	-	4.31	0.04	-	-	-	-
Race	0.021	-	1.35	0.25	-	-	-	-
Resources	0.184	0.56	58.54	<0.0001	0.117	0.51	41.43	<0.0001
Psychological engagement	0.245	0.55	84.42	<0.0001	0.187	0.51	64.42	<0.0001
Recruitment networks	0.282	1.06	101.81	<0.0001	0.214	.93	77.84	<0.0001

\* p-value based on F-test

† adjusted for control variables

‡ control variables include professional credentials, age, gender, and race

Validation analysis using a 75/25% cross validation was conducted for both the group recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction and those not recovering. For the validation on participants who are recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction, the significance of the relationship between the independent variables (resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks) and the dependent variable (political participation) replicated the full data set. The pattern of significance for the individual relationships between the dependent variable political participation and the predictor variables resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks was the same for the analysis using the full data set and the 75% training sample. The value of  $R^2$  for the validation sample was actually larger than the value of  $R^2$  for the training sample, implying a better fit than obtained for the training sample. The validation analysis supported the generalizability of the findings to the population represented by the sample.

For the validation analysis with participants who are not recovering from alcohol and other drug addiction, the significance of the relationship between the independent variables (resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks) and the dependent variable (political participation) also replicated the full data set. The pattern of significance for the individual relationships between the dependent variable political participation and the predictor variables resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks was the same for the analysis using the full data set and the 75% training sample; however the

shrinkage in  $R^2$  for the validation sample exceeded 2%, which raises questions about the generalizability of the findings. The validation analysis does not support the generalizability of the findings to the population represented by the sample.

**Research Question 2c) Are there differences in the influence of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks in predicting political participation among NAADAC members who are social workers and those who are not social workers?**

Table 4.13 provides the results of the hierarchical multiple regression used to assess the differences of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks as predictors of political participation among NAADAC members who are social workers and those who are not. Resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks were all significant predictors of political participation for both groups. Recruitment networks accounted for the greatest variance in political participation for those who were not social workers however, psychological engagement accounted for the greatest variance for social workers. The validation analysis did not replicate the findings for social workers.

Prior to the analysis, the data for individuals who reported they were social workers and those who are not social workers were separately evaluated for the ratio of valid cases, missing data, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and outliers. If a variable in the regression model was missing, the case was excluded

from the sample. Revised regression models for those who are social workers and those who are not social workers were conducted using logarithmic transformations of the variable resource with outliers excluded. The revised models failed to explain more of the variance than the baseline model, indicating that the baseline model with all cases should be used for interpretation. Further evaluation satisfied the assumption of independence of errors and that multicollinearity was not a problem. Results for the adjusted analysis are reported in Table 4.13.

For NAADAC members who were social workers, the adjusted model shows that psychological engagement ( $F=12.78$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and recruitment networks ( $F=13.01$ ,  $p<.001$ ) were significant predictors of political participation but resources was not ( $F= 15.86$ ,  $p=.201$ ). In total the three independent variables accounted for 49.2% of the total variance in political participation. The change in  $R^2$  as seen in Table 4.13 reflects the proportional reduction in error for predicting political participation of each independent variable. The variable psychological engagement accounted for a 29.4% change in  $R^2$  and recruitment networks reflected a 19.8% change in  $R^2$ . The addition of the control variables as a group was not significantly associated with political participation ( $F=3.37$ ,  $p=.297$ ).

For NAADAC members who were social workers, none of the individual control variables, recovery status, age, gender, and race was significantly associated with political participation. In the crude analysis, a 1-unit increase in

resources was associated with a 0.41-unit increase in political participation but the association was not significant ( $F=16.74$ ,  $p=.204$ ). After adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, age, race, and gender the association was still not significant ( $F=15.86$ ,  $p=.201$ ). For every 1-unit increase in psychological engagement, political participation increased by 1.07 units ( $F=13.83$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). The association remained after adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, age, race and gender ( $F=12.78$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Finally, a 1-unit increase in recruitment networks was associated with a .54-unit increase in political participation ( $F=13.41$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), an association which remained after adjusting for the control variables ( $F=13.01$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

For NAADAC members who were not social workers, the adjusted model shows that resources, ( $F=25.72$ ,  $p<.0001$ ), psychological engagement ( $F=53.86$ ,  $p<.0001$ ) and recruitment networks ( $F=53.19$ ,  $p<.0001$ ) were significant predictors of political participation. In total, these three independent variables accounted for 54.3% of the variance in political participation. The change in  $R^2$  as seen in Table 4.13 reflects the proportional reduction in error for predicting political participation of each independent variable. The variable resources accounted for the lowest change in  $R^2$  at 6.1%, while psychological engagement accounted for a 21.6% change in  $R^2$  and recruitment networks reflected a slightly higher change in  $R^2$  with 26.6%. The addition of the control variables as a group was not significantly associated with political participation ( $F=4.13$ ,  $p=.108$ ).

For NAADAC members who were not social workers, the control variables, recovery status, age, gender, and race, were also not significantly associated with political participation in the crude analysis (Table 4.13). In the crude analysis a 1-unit increase in resources was associated with a 0.55-unit increase in political participation ( $F=26.85$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). This association remained after adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, age, race and gender ( $F=25.72$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). A 1-unit increase in psychological engagement was associated with a 0.41-unit increase in political participation ( $F=56.95$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ); the association remained after adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, age, race and gender ( $F=53.86$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). A 1-unit increase in recruitment networks was associated with a 1.06-unit increase in political participation ( $F=56.18$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), an association that remained after adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, age, race, and gender ( $F=53.19$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ).

Table 4.13. Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Influence of CVM Factors for Social Workers and Others

	Crude				R <sup>2</sup> Change	Adjusted <sup>†</sup>		
	R <sup>2</sup>	B	F-value	p-value*		β	F-value	p-value*
<b>Social Workers</b> (N=77) Control variables <sup>‡</sup>	-	-	-	-	0.086	-	3.37	0.297
Recovery Status	0.006	-	.47	0.062	-	-	-	-
Age	0.089	-	.73	0.601	-	-	-	-
Gender	0.054	-	1.16	0.286	-	-	-	-
Race	0.022	-	1.25	0.300	-	-	-	-
Resources	0.151	0.41	16.74	0.204	0.127	0.16	15.86	0.201



Psychological Engagement	0.339	1.07	13.83	<0.001	0.294	0.73	12.78	<0.001
Recruitment networks	0.261	.54	13.41	<0.001	0.198	0.51	13.01	<0.001
<b>Not Social Workers (N=478)</b>								
Control variables <sup>†</sup>	-	-	-	-	0.122	-	4.13	0.108
Recovery Status	0.014	-	.32	0.724	-	-	-	-
Age	0.072	-	1.66	0.143	-	-	-	-
Gender	0.017	-	3.15	0.076	-	-	-	-
Race	0.021	-	.61	0.652	-	-	-	-
Resources	0.254	0.55	26.85	<0.0001	0.061	0.51	25.72	<0.0001
Psychological Engagement	0.076	0.41	56.95	<0.0001	0.216	0.51	53.86	<0.0001
Recruitment networks	0.297	1.06	56.18	<0.0001	0.266	.96	53.19	<0.0001
* p-value based on F-test								
† adjusted for control variables								
‡ control variables include recovery status, age, gender, and race								

Validation analysis using a 75/25% cross-validation was conducted for members who were social workers and members who were not social workers. For the validation analysis with participants who were social workers, the significance of the relationship between the independent variables (resources, psychological engagement and recruitment networks) and the dependent variable (political participation) was consistent with the full data set. The pattern of significance for the individual relationships between the dependent variable political participation and the predictor variables was the same for the analysis

using the full data set and the 75% training sample; however, the shrinkage in  $R^2$  for the validation sample exceeded 2% raising questions about the generalizability of the findings. The validation analysis does not support the generalizability of the findings to the population represented by the sample.

For the validation analysis on participants who are not social workers the significance of the relationship between the independent variables (resources, psychological engagement and recruitment networks) and the dependent variable (political participation) replicated the full data set. The pattern of significance for the individual relationships between the dependent variable political participation and the predictor variables resources, psychological engagement and recruitment networks was the same for the analysis using the full data set and the 75% training sample. The value of  $R^2$  for the validation sample was actually larger than the value of  $R^2$  for the training sample, implying it is a better fit than obtained for the training sample. The validation analysis supports the generalizability of the findings to the population represented by the sample.

**Research Question 2d) Are there differences in the influence of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks in predicting political participation among NAADAC members who possess professional credentials in addition to NAADAC certification, members with NAADAC certification but no other professional credentials, and members with no certification?**

Table 4.14 provides the results of the hierarchical multiple regression used to assess the differences of resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks as predictors of political participation based on whether participants possessed a certification, certification plus professional credentials, or no certification. Resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks were all significant predictors of political participation for all three subgroups. Recruitment networks accounted for the greatest variance in political participation for all three subgroups.

Prior to the analysis the data for individuals who reported they possessed a certification, those who indicated they possessed a certification plus professional credentials, and those who were not certified were separately evaluated for the ratio of valid cases, missing data, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and outliers. If a variable in the regression model was missing, the case was excluded from the sample. For those who were certified the ratio of cases to independent variables met the minimum required for analysis but not the preferred ratio. Revised regression models for those who possess a certification and those certification plus professional credentials were conducted using logarithmic transformations of the variable resource with outliers excluded. The revised model for individuals who possess a certification failed to explain more of the variance than the baseline model indicating that the baseline model with all cases should be used for interpretation. The revised model for individuals who possess a certification plus professional credentials explained more of the

variance than the baseline model, but the increase in  $R^2$  was less than 2%, indicating that the baseline model with all cases should be used for interpretation. The variables in the data set for individuals who were not certified met the assumptions required for the analysis. Further evaluation satisfied the assumption of independence of errors and that multicollinearity was not a problem. Results are reported showing the crude associations as well as the results for the adjusted analysis in Table 4.14.

As the adjusted model indicates, for NAADAC members who reported no certification, resources ( $F=28.44$ ,  $0<.0001$ ), psychological engagement ( $F=89.94$ ,  $p<.0001$ ), and recruitment networks ( $F=99.12$ ,  $p<.0001$ ) were all significant predictors of political participation. In total, these three independent variables accounted for 47.9% of the variance in political participation. The change in  $R^2$  as seen in Table 4.14 reflects the proportional reduction in error for predicting political participation of each independent variable. The variable resources accounted for the lowest change in  $R^2$  at 7.7%, while psychological engagement accounted for a 19.3% change in  $R^2$ , and recruitment networks reflected a change in  $R^2$  of 20.9%. The addition of the control variables as a group was significantly associated with political participation ( $F=4.25$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ).

As the crude analysis indicates, for NAADAC members who reported no certification, the control variables, recovery status and race were not associated with political participation; however, age ( $F=6.96$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ) and gender ( $F=8.29$ ,  $p=0.004$ ), were associated with political participation. In the crude analysis, a 1-

unit increase in resources was associated with a 0.48-unit increase in political participation ( $F=43.92$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). This association remained after adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, age, race and gender ( $F=28.44$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). A 1-unit increase in psychological engagement was associated with a 0.52-unit increase in political participation ( $F=104.94$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), an association that remained after adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, age, race and gender ( $F=89.94$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). A 1-unit increase in recruitment networks was associated with a 1.07-unit increase in political participation ( $F=133.55$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), an association that remained after adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, age, race, and gender ( $F=99.12$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ).

For those who reported they possessed a NAADAC certification, the adjusted model shows that resources ( $F=41.67$ ,  $p=.005$ ), psychological engagement ( $F=56.44$ ,  $p=.002$ ), and recruitment networks ( $F=84.87$ ,  $p<.001$ ) were all significant predictors of political participation. In total, these three independent variables accounted for 46.4% of the variance in political participation. The change in  $R^2$  as seen in Table 4.14 reflects the proportional reduction in error for predicting political participation of each independent variable. The variable psychological engagement accounted for the lowest change in  $R^2$  at 11.8%, while resources accounted for 11.9% change in  $R^2$ , and recruitment networks reflected a change in  $R^2$  of 22.7%. The addition of the

control variables as a group was not significantly associated with political participation ( $F=3.58$ ,  $p=.068$ ).

As the crude analysis shows, for members certified by NAADAC there was no association between political participation and the control variables recovery status, race and age, but there was an association between political participation and gender ( $F=6.97$ ,  $p=0.01$ ). In the crude analysis, a 1-unit increase in the independent variable resources was associated with a 0.46-unit increase in political participation ( $F=49.55$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). This association remained after adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, race, gender and age ( $F=41.67$ ,  $p=0.005$ ). For every 1-unit increase in the independent variable psychological engagement, political participation increased by 0.57 units ( $F=100.54$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). The association remained after adjusting the control variables ( $F=56.44$ ,  $p=0.002$ ). A 1-unit increase in the independent variables recruitment networks was associated with a 1.06-unit increase in political participation ( $F=92.72$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), an association which remained after adjusting for the control variables ( $F=84.87$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

For members who reported they possessed a NAADAC certification plus professional credentials, the adjusted analysis shows that the CVM factors, resources ( $F=22.08$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), psychological engagement ( $F=48.62$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), and recruitment networks ( $F=49.46$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ) were all significant predictors of political participation. In total, these three independent variables accounted for 39.3% of the variance in political participation. The change in  $R^2$  as seen in Table

4.14 reflects the proportional reduction in error for predicting political participation of each independent variable. The variable resources accounted for the lowest change in  $R^2$  at 9.6%, while psychological engagement accounted for a 12% change in  $R^2$ , and recruitment networks reflected a change in  $R^2$  of 17.7%. The addition of the control variables as a group was significantly associated with political participation ( $F=3.17$ ,  $p=0.02$ ).

As the crude analysis indicates, for members who reported they possessed a NAADAC certification plus professional credentials, recovery status, age, and race, were not significantly associated with political participation; however, gender was associated with political participation ( $F=8.70$ ,  $p=0.004$ ). In the crude analysis, a 1-unit increase in resources was associated with a 0.42-unit increase in political participation ( $F=34.74$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). This association remained after adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, age, race and gender ( $F=22.08$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). A 1-unit increase in psychological engagement was associated with a 0.56-unit increase in political participation ( $F=86.19$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), an association that remained after adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, age, race and gender ( $F=48.62$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). A 1-unit increase in recruitment networks was associated with a .98-unit increase in political participation ( $F=70.05$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), an association that remained after adjusting for the control variables, recovery status, age, race, and gender ( $F=49.46$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ).

Table 4.14: Hierarchical Multiple Regression: Influence of CVM factors by Certification and/or Credentials

	Crude				Adjusted <sup>†</sup>			
	R <sup>2</sup>	B	F-value	p-value*	R <sup>2</sup> Change	β	F-value	p-value*
<b>Not certified</b> (N=342)								
Control variables <sup>‡</sup>	-	-	-	-	0.114	-	4.25	<0.0001
Recovery Status	0.003		0.49	0.61	-	-	-	-
Age	0.105	-	6.96	<0.0001	-	-	-	-
Gender	0.069	-	8.29	0.004	-	-	-	-
Race	0.013	-	0.99	0.42	-	-	-	-
Resources	0.124	0.48	43.92	<0.0001	0.077	0.40	28.44	<0.0001
Psychological engagement	0.252	0.52	104.94	<0.0001	0.193	0.51	89.94	<0.0001
Recruitment Networks	0.301	1.07	133.55	<0.0001	0.209	0.95	99.12	<0.0001
<b>Certified</b> (N=41)								
Control variables <sup>‡</sup>	-	-	-	-	0.251	-	3.58	0.068
Recovery Status	0.013	-	0.46	0.50	-	-	-	-
Age	0.082	-	2.36	0.06	-	-	-	-
Gender	0.070	-	6.97	0.01	-	-	-	-
Race	0.001	-	0.02	0.89	-	-	-	-
Resources	0.162	0.46	49.55	<0.0001	0.118	0.41	41.67	0.005
Psychological engagement	0.282	0.57	100.54	<0.0001	0.119	0.46	56.44	0.002
Recruitment networks	0.266	1.06	92.72	<0.0001	0.227	1.01	84.87	<0.001



<b>Certified w/ Credentials (N=238)</b>								
Control variables <sup>‡</sup>	-	-	-	-	0.069	-	3.17	0.002
Recovery Status	0.026	-	2.78	0.06	-	-	-	-
Age	0.040	-	2.18	0.07	-	-	-	-
Gender	0.040	-	8.70	0.004	-	-	-	-
Race	0.023	-	1.24	0.30	-	-	-	-
Resources	0.137	0.42	34.74	<0.0001	0.096	0.36	22.08	<0.0001
Psychological Engagement	0.283	0.56	86.19	<0.0001	0.120	0.49	48.62	<0.0001
Recruitment Networks	0.243	0.98	70.05	<0.0001	0.177	0.87	49.46	<0.0001
* p-value based on F-test								
† adjusted for control variables								
‡ control variables include RECOVER, AGE, GENDER, and RACE								

Validation analysis for the hierarchical multiple regression was conducted using a 75/25% cross-validation for each group based on certification, no certification and certification plus professional credentials. For all three subgroups the significance of the relationship between the independent variables (resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks) and the dependent variable (political participation) replicated the full data set. The pattern of significance for the individual relationships between the dependent variable, political participation, and the predictor variables, resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks, was the same for the analysis using the full data set and the 75% training sample. For the subgroups of members with no certification and members with certification plus professional credentials, the

value of  $R^2$  for the independent variables in the validation sample was actually larger than the value of  $R^2$  for the training sample, implying a better fit than obtained for the training sample. The validation analysis for these two groups supported the generalizability of the findings to the population represented by the sample. However for the subgroup of members who were certified, the shrinkage in  $R^2$  for the validation sample exceeded 2% raising questions about the generalizability of the findings. The validation analysis for members who were certified does not support the generalizability of the findings to the population represented by the sample.

#### *Social Desirability Bias*

Of the 663 participants, 566 answered the questions on the eight-item Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability scale (Ray, 1984). The mean score was 11.5 (SD 1.58, range 2-15). For every 1-unit increase in Crowne-Marlowe score, there was a 0.026-unit decrease in the Political Participation Index, but that decrease was not statistically significant ( $p=0.8459$ ). After adjusting for recovery status, licensing, age, gender, and race, the lack of association remained ( $t=-0.29$ ,  $p=0.7731$ ). Though survey studies of voting behavior tend to show that respondents often inflate their voting behavior (i.e., report they voted when they actually did not) (Verba et al., 1995), the nonsignificant findings indicate that social desirability bias did not influence participants' responses on the Political Participation Index in the current study.

### *Summary of Findings*

The Civic Voluntarism Model (CVM) factors, resources (time, income and civic skills), psychological engagement (political interest, political information and political efficacy), and recruitment networks were all significant predictors of political participation among addiction professionals. As Table 4.15 shows, of the three CVM factors, the independent variable, recruitment networks, was the strongest predictor of political participation for the full sample as well as all the subgroups except social workers and individuals recovering from AOD addiction. Table 4.15 also shows that psychological engagement was the strongest predictor of political participation for social workers and individuals who were recovering from AOD addiction. There were significant differences among the subgroups in the contribution of the independent variable, psychological engagement, in predicting political participation. A comparison of the mean Political Participation Index as well as the indices for resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks revealed minimal variability between the full sample and subgroups of individuals who are recovering from AOD addiction and those who are not recovering, social workers and non-social workers, and individuals who were not certified, those who were certified, those who were not certified and those with certification plus professional credentials (see Table 4.16).

Table 4.15: Comparison of Regression Analysis

*Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> for the Independent Variables by Subgroups*

	Whole Sample	Recovering	Not Recovering	Social Workers	Not Social Workers	Not Certified	Certified	Certified Plus Credentials
Resources	6.8	4.8	11.7	NS	6.1	7.7	11.8	9.6
Psychological Engagement	19.1	19.7	18.7	29.4	21.6	19.3	11.9	12.0
Recruitment Networks	<u>20.8</u>	<u>18.1</u>	<u>21.4</u>	<u>19.8</u>	<u>26.6</u>	<u>20.9</u>	<u>22.7</u>	<u>17.7</u>
Total	46.7	42.6	51.8	49.2	54.3	47.9	46.4	39.3

Note: Shaded subgroups indicate that the findings did not validate

*Independent Contribution of Control Variables (Crude)*

	Whole Sample	Recovering	Not Recovering	Social Workers	Not Social Workers	Not Certified	Certified	Certified Plus Credentials
Recovery	NS	-----		NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Credentials	1.0	NS	NS	-----			-----	
Age	7.7	8.9	7.2	NS	NS	10.5	NS	NS
Gender	3.3	5.4	1.7	NS	NS	6.9	7	4
Race	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS

*Contribution of Control Variables as a Group*

	10.6	12.6	10.0	NS	NS	11.4	NS	6.9
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Table 4.16: Comparison of Political Participation &amp; Independent Variables by Subgroups

			Resources				Psychological Engagement			
	Political Participation Index Mean	Resources Index Mean	Time (Hours) Mean	Income (Range) Median	Civic Skills Index Mean	Psychological Engagement Index Mean	Political Information Index Mean	Political Interest Index Mean	Political Efficacy Index Mean	Recruitment Network Index Mean
Full sample (n=633)	19.06 SD 5.32	11.21 SD 4.42	3.58 SD 3.28	4 (\$50,000-\$74,999) SD 1.25	3.78 SD 2.18	30.84 SD 5.06	4.52 SD 1.10	16.24 SD 3.42	10.12 SD 2.16	6.55 SD 2.68
Recovering (n=302)	19.37 SD 5.49	11.53 SD 4.47	3.63 SD 3.44	4 (\$50,000-\$74,999) SD 1.24	3.80 SD 2.19	31.17 SD 5.21	4.57 SD 1.09	16.44 SD 3.61	10.12 SD 2.21	6.74 SD 2.67
Not recovering (n=312)	18.90 SD 5.20	11.25 SD 4.03	3.44 SD 3.02	3 (\$35,000-\$49,000) SD 3.02	3.84 SD 2.19	30.74 SD 4.71	4.50 SD 1.11	16.12 SD 3.23	10.13 SD 2.11	6.43 SD 2.65
Certified plus credentials (n=238)	19.69 SD 5.06	11.42 SD 4.68	3.75 SD 3.45	5 (\$75,000-\$124,999) SD 1.18	3.72 SD 2.21	31.23 SD 4.88	4.59 SD 1.02	16.53 SD 3.50	10.15 SD 2.11	6.85 SD 2.59
Certified (n=42)	19.14 SD 5.69	11.00 SD 4.63	3.44 SD 3.26	4 (\$50,000-\$74,999) SD 1.53	3.81 SD 2.00	32.14 SD 4.55	4.43 SD 1.15	16.79 SD 2.62	10.74 SD 2.25	6.64 SD 2.46
Not certified (n=344)	18.62 SD 5.44	11.08 SD 4.17	3.46 SD 3.16	4 (\$50,000-\$74,999) SD 1.28	3.82 SD 2.19	30.42 SD 5.24	4.48 SD 1.14	15.98 SD 3.46	10.04 SD 2.19	6.29 SD 2.74
Social workers (n=89)	19.07 SD 5.50	11.31 SD 5.11	3.72 SD 3.80	5 (\$75,000-\$124,999) SD 1.19	3.32 SD 2.11	31.49 SD 4.73	4.58 SD 1.20	16.84 SD 3.06	10.24 SD 1.90	6.89 SD 2.83
Not social workers (n=544)	19.06 SD 5.30	11.21 SD 4.30	3.57 SD 3.19	4 (\$50,000-\$74,999) SD 1.25	3.86 SD 2.18	30.71 SD 5.12	4.51 SD 1.08	16.14 SD 3.48	10.10 SD 2.21	6.49 SD 2.66

## Chapter 5

### Discussion and Conclusions

This chapter begins by reviewing the study's strengths and limitations that should be considered in interpreting the results. A brief review of the study's most important findings is provided followed by a discussion of the political participation of addiction professionals, their awareness of initiatives to influence alcohol and drug policy, and the factors that influence their political participation. The chapter ends with implications of the study and suggestions for further research.

#### *Strengths and Limitations of the Study*

There are several strengths of the current study. This is the first known study of the political participation of addiction professionals. The study was strengthened by access to all NAADAC members with an e-mail address on file. NAADAC has a broad range of members in 46 states, and members from all states participated in the study. The sample's demographic characteristics closely resembled that of NAADAC members. The focus on individuals in recovery from alcohol and drug addiction is a unique feature of this study since there is limited knowledge about these individuals beyond early recovery. The use of Verba, Schlozman, and Brady's (1995) Citizen Participation survey was another strength of the current study since it has been used in previous studies, including a study of social workers' political participation.

Despite these strengths, the study has obvious limitations. One of the assumptions of the study is that political activity can result in policy reform. While it obviously can be, as seen in many voter initiatives in California, it may not be the most efficient and effective way to achieve policy change in many states or nationally. The major limitation involves the generalizability of the findings. About 10% of NAADAC's individual members were not asked to participate since no e-mail addresses were available for them. Though all members with e-mail addresses were invited to participate, the response rate was extremely low. While the 633 participants were more than sufficient for conducting the multivariate statistical tests, this group represents only 7% of the NAADAC membership and 8% with e-mail addresses. Since it is not possible to tell whether the sample is representative of the overall membership, confidence in the findings' generalizability is hampered. For example, we do not know if individuals who participated are those who tend to be more politically active while those who are less politically active declined to participate.

The self-report nature of the survey also lends itself to social desirability bias. This may be even more of a concern when studying political participation since the literature documents that people tend to over report their political activity (Verba et al., 1995). A short version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability scale was used to evaluate this and no significant correlation was found with participants' political participation scores, minimizing concerns that participants' answered in a socially desirable manner. Some of the scales used in

this study had low internal reliability, specifically the scale measuring recruitment networks. The scale used to measure civic skills, which was one component of the resources variable, was also just below the generally minimum acceptable level of .70, which also raises some concern about the findings' generalizability. Finally the findings for three of the subgroups, NAADAC members who were certified, NAADAC members who were not recovering from AOD addiction and NAADAC members who were social workers could not be confirmed through validation analysis indicating they could not be generalized to the population represented by the sample.

Despite these concerns, the findings are worth reporting given that is the first study of its kind, the sample size is substantial, and the sample's demographics are comparable to the NAADAC membership.

### *Discussion of the Findings*

Alcohol and other drug (AOD) addiction is one of the leading social issues facing Americans, yet the research community has given little attention to efforts to influence state and federal policies that may more effectively address the issue. This study was prompted by the increasing efforts to shift state and federal alcohol and drug policy from a criminal justice perspective to more of a public health concern. The study's goals were two-fold. One was to contribute to the knowledge base about addiction professionals' political participation and factors that influence their participation. The second was to make practical recommendation to organizations working to mobilize political participation by



providing empirical data to identify predictors of political participation among addiction professionals.

### *Demographics*

What we know about addiction professionals from the existing literature is that compensation tends to be low compared to other professions; educational attainment also tends to be lower than other counseling professions, in part because entry into the profession is supported through multiple levels of certification with various levels of educational requirements; a substantial number of these professionals are themselves recovering from addiction; and the workforce of addiction professionals is aging (McLellan & Keller, 2003; Mustaine, West, & Wyrick, 2003; Najavits, Crits-Christoph, & Dierberger, 2000; Stoeffelmayr, Mavis, Sherry & Chiu, 1999; Toriello & Leierer, 2004). While participants were not asked if they were currently working in the addictions field, it is safe to assume that the participants have at least a strong interest in the field of addictions. Their educational level was higher than anticipated since 66.9% of the participants indicated they had a masters degree or higher. The strong presence of individuals recovering from AOD addiction (47.7%) and the predominance of participants over the age of 45 (83.6%) are consistent with the literature. While all the participants may not be actively working in the addictions field, the findings may suggest that professionals interested in the addictions field are also aging and should focus on nurturing and training the next generation of addiction professionals to serve clients and promote sound policy. The income of

study participants was higher than expected for addiction professionals given the substantial documentation about low compensation. Almost half of the participants (45.6%) reported income over \$75,000 and 72.4% reported income over \$50,000. However, the survey asked about household income rather than the individual's income; therefore, no inference can be made about this data as it relates to the salaries of addiction professionals.

### *Political Participation*

In virtually every political activity measured, study participants were more politically active than the general public based on the findings of Verba et al.'s (1995) Citizen Participation Study. One would expect the measure of membership in a civic group to be high since membership in a professional organization was one of the response categories and the sample was drawn from a professional organization. The other types of groups that participants reported membership in the most frequently include educational institutions, neighborhood associations, issue-based groups, social service organizations, and hobby or sports, elderly/senior citizens, and cultural groups (See Appendix Z).

Even though the high level of membership in civic groups was not unexpected, the activity within the groups that was reported (attendance at meetings, serving as a board member, chatting informally about politics) was especially high and more than double what Verba et al. (1995) found in the Citizen Participation Study. In addition to their participation in leadership roles (58.3%), the majority of the participants who reported active memberships in

organizations or civic groups reported that these organizations and groups take a public stand on issues (68.5%).

A comparison of the political participation of 1) social workers and others, 2) members not certified by NAADAC, members certified by NAADAC, and members certified by NAADAC with other professional credentials, and 3) members recovering from AOD addiction and those not recovering, revealed minimal differences in the mean participation index scores. The only subgroup within the full sample with a statistically significant lower mean political participation index was the group of individuals who were not certified. This group had a lower PPI than those with a certification and those with a certification plus other professional credentials. One possible explanation for this is that participants who were not certified by NAADAC were more likely to be in the under age 45 groups (23.1%) compared to 12.1% of participants who were certified through NAADAC and 11.8% who were certified by NAADAC and had other professional credentials. Education does not explain the lower PPI for members who were not certified by NAADAC since members who were certified by NAADAC had substantially less education (58.5% with a bachelors degree or less) than members who were not certified by NAADAC (36.5% with a bachelors degree or less) and members who were certified by NAADAC and also had other professional credentials (24.9% with a bachelors degree or less).

Since this study did not specifically look at the subgroup of individuals that were licensed professionals in other fields but not certified by NAADAC, it should

be clarified that not being certified through NAADAC does not mean that those without NAADAC certification have lower educational attainment. Individuals may be members of the professional association for a variety of reasons. Some are educators, physicians, nurses, or researchers who have no need to be certified. Based on the absence of clear information about the individuals who are not certified, it is not possible to determine why their political participation was lower.

### *Social Workers' Political Participation*

The findings about social workers' political participation support previous research indicating that social workers are significantly more politically active than the general public (Wolk, 1981; Ezell, 1993). Similar to Ritter's (2007) findings, social workers' highest participation was in activities that did not require a significant investment of resources (voting, contacting legislators, and discussing politics).

Ritter noted that social workers tend not to participate in activities that require significant resources, identified as time and money; however, that was not evident in this study. Practically all of the social workers (92.1%) reported they were members of a civic group and over 60% reported they were active members within the civic groups in ways that may require a substantial commitment of time such as serving as a board member or officer. In addition to an investment of time, another significant difference in this study from previous research is the number of social workers reporting that they had contributed to a

campaign (52.8%). Ritter (2006) found that making a contribution to a campaign was one of the activities social workers participated in the least. While many social workers in this study (52.8%) reported contributing to campaigns, only 16.9% reported volunteering for a campaign, which is consistent with Ritter's (2006) findings.

Other findings from this study that were consistent with Ritter's (2006) findings are the low participation in protests, attendance at local council meetings, and volunteering within the community. The research has often attributed the low participation in volunteering in the community to the investment of time required; however, an alternative explanation might be that social workers choose to engage civically in other ways because volunteering too closely resembles their work.

When comparing the findings about social workers in this study to previous studies, two issues should be noted: the difference in instruments and the sample size. Earlier studies (Wolk, 1981; Ezell, 1993) used different scales to measure social workers' political participation as well as different time frames for the activities making it difficult to discuss possible trends in political participation. Ritter (2006) adapted the Citizen Participation Study survey to better suit social workers, while in this study the CPS was used verbatim. For example, she used different political information questions assuming that many licensed social workers would have a more sophisticated level of political knowledge. In addition, the relatively small sample size for the subgroup of social workers

(N=89) in this study decreases the generalizability of the findings to the broader population of social work professionals.

### *Resources, Psychological Engagement, and Recruitment Networks*

In general, resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks were useful predictors of addiction professionals' political participation. Study findings indicate that recruitment networks was the strongest predictor of political participation for the full sample, as well as members who were not social workers, members not certified by NAADAC, members certified by NAADAC, members certified by NAADAC with other professional credentials, and members who were not recovering from AOD addiction. For members recovering from AOD addiction and members who were social workers, psychological engagement was the strongest predictor of political participation.

The total variance explained by the three predictor variables combined (resources, psychological engagement, and recruitment networks) was the highest for the members who were not social workers (54.3%). The variance explained by psychological engagement was the highest for members who were social workers (29.4%) though the multivariate statistical model was not as stable as models for other subgroups studied.

In the area of psychological engagement, participants discussed more often and were more interested in national politics than local or state politics; however, their perceived attention to and influence over local and state politics was higher than their perceived attention to and influence over national politics.

On the independent variable recruitment networks, the majority (69.3%) of the full sample indicated that someone in a position of authority within an organization with which they were affiliated had suggested that they take action other than voting on a political issue. However a substantially smaller group (26.6%) indicated that an authority within an organization with which they were affiliated had asked them to vote for a candidate. This may be attributable to laws that restrict nonprofits and religious organizations from lobbying activities.

Organizations may ask their members to take action but stop short of anything that is considered lobbying such as voting. Organizations may also find other ways to support campaigns that are consistent with their position on issues without directly asking their membership to vote for a specific candidate.

Of the control variables, it is worth noting that race and recovery status were not significant predictors of political participation for the full sample or for any of the subgroups in this study. However, age accounted for a substantial amount of variance in the crude analysis for the full sample, and subgroups of members who were recovering and those not recovering, as well as members who were not certified and those with a certification plus other professional credentials.

### *Implications of the Findings*

Given the importance of recruitment networks in predicting political participation in the Citizen Participation Study, Brady, Schlozman, and Verba (1999) used their data to develop a model to assist recruiters, such as NGOs,

with identifying prospects with characteristics that would predispose them to agree to a request to engage in a civic or political activity and to be effective when they do participate. Brady et al. (1999) refer to this as “rational prospecting.” This strategy has two stages: 1) Identify prospects who have been active in the past and also have the characteristics that predispose them to participate in the activities, such as an affinity for political engagement (political interest, knowledge, and/or efficacy) or concern about a particular policy as well as the necessary resources (time, income, and/or civic skills) needed to take effective political action; and 2) After locating individuals who have the greatest participation potential, recruiters must provide information on participatory opportunities and incentives to persuade recruits to acquiesce to the request (Brady et al., 1999).

In the second stage of rational prospecting, Brady et al. (1999) suggest recruiters use various gratifications to encourage participation ranging from selective material or social benefits, to fulfilling a civic obligation, to furthering a worthwhile policy. Brady et al. (1999) assert that circumstances that involve leverage or influence increase the likelihood of the individual performing the desired task. Specifically, the relationship to a particular recruiter gives the prospect a special incentive to agree to the request. According to Brady et al. (1999), social relationships are based on common bonds, the desire to please, or not to offend, which also increase the likelihood that requests will be responded to in a positive way. In addition to leverage, Brady et al. (1999) note that



recruiters must also provide prospects with useful information that is relative to their interests or concerns about policy issues. Brady et al. (1999) note that “focusing on targets to whom they are close is an efficient strategy for rational prospectors. They should find it easier to locate, connect with, and get the message across to people with whom they have close relationships” (p. 155).

Findings from this study may offer NGOs a way of understanding factors that predict political participation that will be useful in developing strategies to maximize initiatives for AOD policy reform. This study suggests that addiction professionals are interested in and open to supporting efforts to influence AOD policy which makes them rational prospects. Not only have many of the participants been active in recent political activities, they have the characteristics that predispose them to support efforts to influence AOD policy reform. NGOs interested in influencing public policy should solicit the support of addiction professionals as well as other civic organizations where addiction professionals are members. This would allow them to capitalize on addiction professionals’ relationships with members of other civic organizations and engage them in informal conversations about politics, an activity that was prominent among participants in this study.

As Verba et al. (1996) noted a main reason individuals aren’t politically active is that no one asked them to be. Addiction professionals may need more than to be informed about the initiatives of NGOs, they may need to be clearly asked to perform a specific task they can accomplish, and, in turn, they could

also approach friends, family members, and members of other civic organizations to perform these same tasks. NGOs may benefit by identifying multiple low-level tasks they could ask supporters to perform, especially those that require minimal resources, since it appears that addiction professionals do respond to requests.

There are many incentives for addiction professionals to support AOD policy reform. Addiction professionals often have a personal connection to the issue of addiction, and, as noted in this study, feel an obligation to support AOD policy reform, such as increased access to treatment. In addition, addiction professionals themselves would benefit from increased access to treatment because this would increase their employment opportunities. A greater emphasis on treatment and expanding treatment access also has the potential to raise the prestige of the addiction profession and may have a positive impact on compensation for addiction treatment professionals. NGOs could also reinforce the personal gratifications that could result from support of policy initiatives that result in better treatment of people with AOD problems.

Over 90% of the participants indicated they were aware of NAADAC's efforts to influence alcohol and drug policy; however, almost half reported they had never received a request from NAADAC to participate in any type of political activity focused on AOD policy. NAADAC apparently recognized the need to communicate more effectively with their members about policy issues. Since this survey was completed, NAADAC has implemented an e-mail distribution system that allows for more effective communication with members who have an e-mail

address on file. They've used the new system to ask members to contact members of Congress to support the mental health parity bill and to solicit donations for their political action committee. It is unclear how effective the e-mail communication will be given the documentation about unsolicited e-mail not being opened (Kann et al., 2007). While a more personal contact such as a phone call may be more labor intensive, it may be more effective with this demographic group. This could be coordinated at the state level through phone trees staffed by local NAADAC members or volunteers.

Despite the extensive effort that NAADAC has placed on advocacy, very few members reported they had attended the organization's advocacy conference. To expand the impact of their advocacy conference and increase the members' exposure to efforts to influence AOD policy, NAADAC might consider merging the advocacy conference with its annual conference or routinely holding the conference in Washington DC so that meetings with legislators could be arranged as an experiential learning component. NGOs working to influence AOD policy can also conduct educational workshops on their initiatives at the annual conferences or bring elected officials to the conferences to speak to or meet with groups of conference attendees.

Nongovernmental organizations could also directly partner with civic groups in which addiction professionals reported membership, such as organizations that are focused on single issues like HIV/AIDS, domestic violence, drunk driving, and child advocacy to address mutual goals. This might mean

taking smaller steps where policy change and access to treatment is a secondary gain that results from promoting public safety, addressing health disparities, and reducing the impact of addiction on children. Given the wide range of helping professionals in this sample, NGOs could also reach out to other professionals such as professional counselors, marriage and family therapists, and physicians to build alliances and find avenues where they can collaborate on mutually beneficial projects. For example, social workers who are addiction professionals may belong to the National Association of Social Workers (NASW), which has 150,000 members and a strong legislative agenda (NASW, 2009). Joining forces could result in much more effective AOD policy.

In this study, psychological engagement was measured by a combination of items reflecting political efficacy, political information, and political interest. Professionals tend to attend trainings in specific areas of their interest; therefore, it would be beneficial for NGOs to provide addiction professionals, as well as social workers, free or low cost continuing education credit for advocacy training at a wide range of conferences covering a variety of interests, perhaps as an optional preconference workshop. This would provide NGOs with an opportunity to reach a broader base and engage professionals in their initiatives. NGOs might also target conferences held in Washington, DC, or state capitals to arrange opportunities for professionals to meet with elected officials to discuss AOD policy. This would provide an experiential training opportunity for professionals who have never met with elected officials and may not feel

confident about their ability to navigate the political system. Ritter (2006) found that even though social work education requires courses in policy, many social workers did not feel well prepared to participate in the political arena. Many NAADAC members may not have had any formal education in this area apart from high school government or civics courses or university courses in government or political science, and may feel even less prepared to engage in the process of influencing AOD policy.

### *Social Work Educators*

A report by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and The Center for Information & Research on Civic Learning & Engagement (CIRCLE) builds on the consensus that one of the ways colleges and universities fulfill their duty as institutional citizens is to educate their students to be effective and responsible citizens (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching & CIRCLE, 2006). Social work education programs are challenged to incorporate a wide range of topics in their curriculums to prepare students for practice. Learning opportunities that increase civic engagement through the use of experiential civic engagement opportunities, such as service learning internships, semesters in Washington, visiting speakers, simulations, collaborative social policy research projects, and living/learning communities, have been found to enhance civic engagement as well as provide topic specific learning (Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching & CIRCLE, 2006). The report also notes that diversity classes and discussions of topics with

a political basis have the potential to enhance civic engagement by increasing psychological engagement (political interest, information, and efficacy).

Only 14% of the NAADAC members who participated in the survey were social workers. Social workers in the addiction field have long called for a stronger presence of social workers in this field of specialty practice (McNeece, 2003). They have called for efforts to better educate social workers in a wide variety of practice areas to assist individuals with AOD addiction (Straussner & Senreich, 2002). These efforts include advocating for policies that reflect the complexity of the issue, including the relationship between AOD problems and other health and social problems, and result in increased access to treatment for all individuals as well as utilization of treatment as an alternative to incarceration. Including initiatives to influence AOD policy and the impact of existing AOD policy on issues such as domestic violence, child welfare, coalition building, and nonprofit management would also serve to increase psychological engagement and broaden the social work students' and practitioners' understanding of the pervasiveness of addiction and the impact of existing AOD policy across social issues.

### *Future Research*

This study generated a number of questions and raises issues that could be used to guide future research. First, researchers should work on developing more valid and reliable measures of political participation that are specifically tailored for the unique perspective of the helping professions such as addiction

professionals and social workers. These scales should combine traditional political activity with broader civic activities that have political implications. There are also a variety of activities that could be considered traditional political activities which were not addressed in the survey used in this study such as asking study participants about placing a sign in their yard or a bumper sticker on their car, wearing t-shirts or buttons, registering voters, or sharing information about candidates.

Future instruments should also consider the technological advances and the generational differences in political participation. Future research on measurement instruments should include activities such as e-mail, text messaging, social networking, the use of U-tube, and other uses of technology as forms of political participation.

Providing empirical support for efficient and effective methods for mobilizing a base of support to engage in civic and political activities is an important area of research and needs further investigation to guide the development of strategies that maximize the use of limited resources. Similarly, research is needed to determine if individuals in recovery from AOD addiction who do not work in the addiction field also feel an obligation to advocate for more effective AOD policy. The recovering members in this study, all of whom were NAADAC members, reported high levels of commitment to influence AOD policy. The commitment of other recovering individuals is not known, but they, and their families, represent a large pool of potential participants interested in influencing

AOD policy. Future studies that identify individuals recovering from AOD addiction should also seek to identify other potentially useful information such as the individual's length of time in recovery, occupation, marital status, affiliation with a 12 Step fellowship, whether or not they maintain anonymity, and perception of advocacy. These characteristics would provide information on possible recruitment networks, engagement factors, and possible barriers to engagement and recruitment. It might be useful to see if there is a correlation between length of time in recovery from AOD addiction and political participation. While we know that addiction crosses all socioeconomic levels and that individuals recover from AOD every day, little is known about individuals in recovery who have reintegrated in society and are productive members of society. The majority of research on individuals in recovery has focused on the treatment episode and first 18 months of recovery. Research on individuals in long-term recovery, including their civic and political participation, would significantly contribute to the addiction knowledge base.

While the study's primary focus was the political participation of addiction professionals, it also sought to measure participants' awareness of and interest in participating in efforts to influence AOD policy. A majority of the participants indicated they were aware of NGOs' initiatives to influence alcohol and other drug policy, and the majority of those who were recovering from AOD addiction reported that they did feel an obligation to support efforts to influence AOD policy. Organizers of AOD policy initiatives should capitalize on this information.



The majority of study participants also indicated they supported a greater focus on access to treatment. Given the disproportionate emphasis on funding for interdiction and criminal justice elements of existing federal AOD policy, shifting policy to a perspective that is evenly focused on public health and public safety would be a substantial change. How to design effective public safety policy that treats the addiction while holding the individual accountable and what this policy should look like in order to significantly increase recovery will require substantially more research and discussion. The public often has difficulty embracing progressive initiatives such as NORA, which offered a more innovative approach to diversion (Curley, 2008); however, the increasing number of individuals in the criminal justice system demands innovative alternatives to the current diversionary programs.

Much has been written about social workers' lack of preparation to assess and work with people who have AOD problems (McNeece, 2003). Little research has been conducted to determine why so many social work students lack interest in addictions. More research is need to determine what factors influence students' interest or lack thereof in the AOD field, how their knowledge, cultural beliefs, values, attitudes, and life experiences play in this decision, and the degree to which the stigma attached to AOD problems presents in decisions about career focus and areas of specialization.

Faculty play an instrumental role in shaping students' professional interests through mentoring, research projects, assignments, and conferences,

yet research has failed to document their role in the lack of preparation of social workers to assess and intervene with substance abusers. Future research might seek to identify the influence of faculty's interests, research, courses taught, cultural beliefs, values, attitudes, life experiences, and the presence of stigma on their students' knowledge of and engagement in issues surrounding AOD addiction, including AOD policy.

### *Conclusions*

Nongovernmental organizations working to influence alcohol and drug policy may be among the few to benefit from the economy. Many states are looking for ways to reduce their budgets, and finding alternatives to incarceration has been identified as one of the methods (Crary, 2009;Join Together, 2009). Even this will be met with substantial resistance from organizations who are invested in maintaining the status quo such as the prison industrial complex and possibly even judicial associations since both have opposed efforts like California's Proposition 5, the Nonviolent Offender Rehabilitation Act, in a 2008 referendum.

President Barack Obama's administration announced that is will push for treatment rather than incarceration of those who are arrested for drug related crimes, the use of alternative drug courts, and an increased focus on reducing the demand for illicit drugs (Johnson & Goldstein, 2009). In promoting wider use of drug courts, the administration is embracing an idea that has been slowly emerging but still remains unavailable to approximately 55,000 of the 1.5 million

Americans with drug addictions arrested each year (Johnson & Goldstein, 2009). President Obama has nominated Seattle Police Chief R. Gil Kerlikowske to lead the Office of National Drug Control Policy. Kerlikowske's top deputy is expected to be A. Thomas McLellan, a leading researcher in the area of AOD addiction, which underscores the administration's philosophy of treatment, rehabilitation, and research. Both of the proposed ONDCP leaders have experienced the wrenching impact of AOD addiction within their families.

The fight for the rights of the addicted and for fair and effective alcohol and drug policy is not new. It has been an ongoing mission of several organizations for many years. Progress in changing AOD policy has been slow, but progress is evident in almost weekly reports of small shifts in state policies. Among the latest is the announcement that the California legislature is considering the legalization and taxation of marijuana in an effort to boost revenue (Join Together, 2009).

What may be different now are the political climate and public awareness of the fiscal and social impact of alcohol and other drug addiction and America's failed policy response to addiction. The passage of the mental health parity bill was a significant step toward recognizing AOD addiction as a health condition to be covered by insurance companies just like any other medical or mental health condition. An initiative by the Open Society Institute is building on the existing momentum through its Closing the Addiction Treatment Gap (CATG) initiative. The CATG initiative is designed to increase awareness of the chronic nature of AOD addiction and the treatment needs of those who are addicted, and to

advocate for the resources to fill the gap in availability and accessibility of addiction treatment services (Soros.org, 2008). The CATG initiative has selected eight sites to serve as pilots for model approaches to closing the addiction treatment gap, which includes a focus on insurance coverage for treatment of this chronic health condition, appropriate levels of appropriations to effectively address this health condition, and efficiently serving those who seek treatment. The initiative will also include a national campaign to showcase the pilot sites and generate a nationwide dialogue about the best practices to address AOD problems in the United States (Soros.org, 2008).

A national dialogue has been a key missing piece in recent efforts to shift AOD policy. Given the new administration's understanding of the nature of AOD addiction as well as its commitment to research and treatment, there is reason to be hopeful that our country is ready for AOD policy reform that will more effectively meet the needs of the millions affected by this health condition. Studies such as the one presented here can help to meet this goal.

## Appendix A

### Email Recruitment Message

August 1, 2008

RE: Survey of the Political Participation of NAADAC Certified Counselors

Dear Colleague:

You are being asked to participate in a national survey of the civic and political participation of NAADAC members. All NAADAC members with e mail address are being asked to participate. There has been minimal research to document the role of the addiction treatment professional in efforts to influence policy related to the field of addiction. The information you provide will allow us to learn more about the type and extent of civic and political activities in which members are involved. It will be useful to NAADAC and other organizations advocating on behalf of individuals affected by alcohol and drug addiction. The survey will ask about your political and civic activities, your professional credentials, and some demographic information, but you will NOT be asked for your name or other such identifying information. There are no known risks of harm. In fact, you may experience a positive feeling from knowing that you contributed to the efforts of researchers working to document activities to influence alcohol and drug policy. The decision not to participate will not affect your current or future membership or relationship with NAADAC in any way.

The survey takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. Your participation is voluntary and completely anonymous. No identifying information will be collected including IP addresses. Please complete the survey once only and do not distribute the survey. You may also request a hard copy of the survey using the contact information below.

You may access the online survey at:

[https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=FG05xR296lmev\\_2bteqcRpMg\\_3d\\_3d](https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=FG05xR296lmev_2bteqcRpMg_3d_3d)

This survey is being conducted in partial fulfillment of my dissertation through the University of Texas at Austin. If you have any questions about the study, you are welcomed to contact me, Tammy Peacock, at (334) 356-6674 or [tammy.peacock@gmail.com](mailto:tammy.peacock@gmail.com) or my dissertation chair, Diana DiNitto, Ph.D., at (512) 471-9227 or [ddinitto@mail.utexas.edu](mailto:ddinitto@mail.utexas.edu).

This study has been reviewed and approved by The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board. If you have questions about your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact --anonymously, if you wish--the Institutional Review Board by phone at (512) 471-8871 or email at [orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu](mailto:orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu). The IRB approval number for this study is 2008-07-0019.

Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

Tammy Peacock, LCSW  
Doctoral Candidate  
University of Texas at Austin  
School of Social Work  
1 University Station, D3500  
Austin, TX 78712-0358

## Appendix B

### Follow Up Email Recruitment Message

August 21, 2008

RE: Survey of the Political Participation of NAADAC Members

Dear Colleague:

You recently received a request to participate in a survey about the civic and political participation of NAADAC members. If you have already completed the survey, I thank you for your time and participation. If you have not participated, please take the time to go to the link below and complete the survey. There has been minimal research to document the role of addiction treatment professionals in efforts to influence policy related to the field of addiction. The information you provide will allow us to learn more about the type and extent of civic and political activities in which members are involved. It will be useful to NAADAC and other organizations advocating on behalf of individuals affected by alcohol and drug addiction. The survey will ask about your political and civic activities, your professional credentials, and some demographic information, but you will NOT be asked for your name or other such identifying information. There are no known risks of harm. In fact, you may experience a positive feeling from knowing that you contributed to the efforts of researchers working to document activities to influence alcohol and drug policy. The decision not to participate will not affect your current or future membership or relationship with NAADAC in any way.

The survey will ask questions about your political and civic activities, your professional credentials, and demographic information. There are no known risks of harm. In fact, you may experience a positive feeling from knowing that you contributed to the efforts of researchers working to document activities to influence alcohol and drug policy. The decision not to participate will not affect your current or future membership or relationship with NAADAC in any way.

The survey takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. Your participation is voluntary and completely anonymous. No identifying information will be collected including IP addresses. Please complete the survey once only and do not distribute the survey. You may also request a hard copy of this survey using the contact information below.

You may access the online survey at:

[https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=FG05xR296lmev\\_2bteqcRpMg\\_3d\\_3d](https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=FG05xR296lmev_2bteqcRpMg_3d_3d)

This survey is being conducted in partial fulfillment of my dissertation through the University of Texas at Austin. If you have any questions about the study, you are welcomed to contact me, Tammy Peacock, at 334-356-6674 or [tammy.peacock@gmail.com](mailto:tammy.peacock@gmail.com) or my dissertation chair, Diana DiNitto, 512-471-9227 or [ddinitto@mail.utexas.edu](mailto:ddinitto@mail.utexas.edu).

This study has been reviewed and approved by The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board. If you have questions about your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact - anonymously, if you wish - the Institutional Review Board by phone at (512) 471-8871 or email at [orisc@uts.cc.utexas.edu](mailto:orisc@uts.cc.utexas.edu). The IRB approval number for this study is 2008-07-0019.

Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

Tammy Peacock, LCSW  
Doctoral Candidate  
University of Texas at Austin  
School of Social Work  
1 University Station, D3500  
Austin, TX 78712-0358



Appendix C:  
Survey Cover Letter

You are being asked to participate in a national survey of the civic and political participation of NAADAC members. All NAADAC members with e-mail address are being asked to participate. The information you provide will allow us to learn more about the type and extent of civic and political activities members are involved in within their communities. It will be useful to NAADAC and other organizations advocating on behalf of individuals affected by alcohol and drug addiction. The survey will ask about your political and civic activities, your professional credentials, and some demographic information, but you will NOT be asked for your name or other such identifying information. There are no known risks of harm. In fact, you may experience a positive feeling from knowing that you contributed to the efforts of researchers working to document activities to influence alcohol and drug policy. The decision not to participate will not affect your current or future membership or relationship with NAADAC in any way.

The survey takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. Your participation is voluntary and completely anonymous. No identifying information will be collected including IP addresses. Please complete the survey once only and do not distribute the survey. You may also request a hard copy of the survey from the contact information below. Completion of the survey acknowledges your consent to participate.

This survey is being conducted in partial fulfillment of my dissertation through the University of Texas at Austin. If you have any questions about the study, you are welcomed to contact me, Tammy Peacock, at 334-356-6674 or [tammy.peacock@gmail.com](mailto:tammy.peacock@gmail.com) or my dissertation chair, Diana DiNitto, Ph.D. at 512-471-9227 or [ddinitto@mail.utexas.edu](mailto:ddinitto@mail.utexas.edu).

This study has been reviewed and approved by The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board. If you have questions about your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact --anonymously, if you wish--the Institutional Review Board by phone at (512) 471-8871 or email at [orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu](mailto:orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu). The IRB approval number for this study is 2008-07-0019.

Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,  
Tammy Peacock, LCSW

Appendix D  
Recovering & Not Recovering: Characteristics

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Race/Ethnicity	Not Recovering (N=302) Frequency (%) <sup>a, b</sup>	Recovering (N=312) Frequency (%) <sup>a, b</sup>
White	256 (87.1%)	252 (83.4%)
African American	20 (6.8%)	16 (5.3%)
Hispanic/Latino	13 (4.4%)	8 (2.6%)
American Indian	4 (1.4%)	5 (1.7%)
Asian Pacific Islander	1 (.3%)	3 (1%)
Missing data	18	18
Gender		
Male	104 (34.6%)	160 (54.6%)
Female	197 (65.4%)	133 (45.4%)
Missing data	11	9
Age		
Under 25	6 (2%)	0
25-34	18 (5.9%)	6 (2%)
35-44	39 (12.7%)	30 (10%)
45-54	102 (33.2%)	92 (30.7%)
55-64	117 (38.1%)	123 (41%)
65 and over	25 (8.1%)	49 (16.3%)
Missing data	5	2
Education		
Less than high school diploma	2 (.7)	1 (.3%)
High school diploma/GED	3 (1%)	8 (2.7%)
Some college	19 (6.2%)	61 (20.4%)
Bachelors degree	42 (13.7%)	65 (21.7%)
Masters degree	203 (66.3%)	143 (47.8%)
Ph.D/M.D./D.D.S./J.D.	37 (12.1%)	21 (7%)
Missing data	6	3
Ideology		
Republican	54 (18.4%)	50 (18.9%)
Democrat	164 (56%)	181 (55.8%)
Independent	65 (22.2%)	60 (22.6%)
Libertarian	10 (3.4%)	2 (2.7%)
Missing data	19	9

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<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

Appendix E  
Recovering & Not Recovering: Frequencies of Measures of Political Participation

Political Participation		Not Recovering (N=302) Mean – 19.37 SD – 5.49 Range 4-30		Recovering (N=312) Mean - 18.90 SD 5.20 Range 6-32	
		Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )		Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	
		Yes	No	Yes	No
Registered to vote		302 (97.4%)	8 (2.6%)	290 (97.3%)	8 (2.7%)
Missing	2		2		
Volunteered for a candidate		51 (16.4%)	260 (83.6%)	54 (17.9%)	248 (82.1%)
Missing	1		0		
Contributed to a campaign		133 (42.8%)	178 (57.2%)	153 (51%)	147 (49%)
Missing	1		2		
Volunteers within the community		91 (30.5%)	207 (69.5%)	84 (26.9%)	228 (73.1%)
Missing	0		4		
Attended a local board/council meeting		119 (38.1%)	193 (61.9%)	149 (49.3%)	153 (50.7%)
Missing	0		0		
Frequency of attendance		Regularly	Once in Awhile	Regularly	Once in Awhile
		34 (28.4%)	85 (71.6%)	38 (25.3%)	111 (74.7%)
Missing data		0		0	
Informal work on community issue		203 (65.1%)	109 (34.9%)	195 (65.0%)	105 (35.0%)
Missing		0		2	
Contacted federal elected officials		188 (60.5%)	123 (39.5%)	199 (66.3%)	101 (33.7%)
Missing		1		2	
Contacted federal nonelected official		105 (33.9%)	205 (66.1%)	125 (41.4%)	177 (58.3%)
Missing		2		0	
Contacted state elected official		182 (58.5%)	129 (41.5%)	195 (64.6%)	107 (35.4%)
Missing		1		0	
Contacted state nonelected official		129 (41.7%)	180 (58.3%)	142 (47.2%)	159 (52.8%)
Missing		3		1	
Participated in a protest		54 (17.4%)	257 (82.6%)	69 (23.2%)	229 (76.8%)
Missing		1		4	
Member of a civic group		285 (91.3%)	27 (8.7%)	277 (91.7%)	25 (8.3%)
Missing		0		0	
Attended a meeting in last 12 months		230 (74.4%)	79 (25.6%)	235 (78.1%)	66 (21.9%)
Missing		3		1	
Political discussions on the agenda		175 (63.4%)	101 (36.6%)	173 (64.6%)	95 (35.4%)
Missing		36		34	
Chat informally about politics		244 (89.1%)	30 (10.9%)	234 (88.0%)	66 (12.0%)
Missing		38		36	
Active member in civic group		159 (69.1%)	71 (30.9%)	163 (69.4%)	72 (30.6%)
Missing		82		67	
Served as board member or officer		137 (59.3%)	94 (40.7%)	136 (57.9%)	99 (42.1%)
Missing		81		67	
Civic group takes public stand on issues		154 (68.4%)	71 (31.6%)	159 (68.8%)	72 (31.2%)
Missing		87		71	
Previous voting patterns		Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )		Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	

Presidential elections					
All of them	221	(71.3%)		173	(57.3%)
Most of them	55	(17.7%)		92	(30.5%)
Some of them	23	(7.4%)		24	(7.9%)
Rarely voted in them	5	(1.7%)		7	(2.3%)
Never voted in them	6	(1.9%)		6	(2%)
Missing	2			0	
Previous local elections					
All of them	80	(25.7%)		66	(21.9%)
Most of them	151	(48.6%)		155	(51.3%)
Some of them	56	(18.0%)		61	(20.2%)
Rarely voted in them	15	(4.8%)		15	(5.0%)
Never voted in them	9	(2.9%)		5	(1.6%)
Missing	1			0	
2004 presidential election					
Yes	288	92.3%		277	92.3%
No	24	7.7%		23	7.7%
Missing data	0			2	

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<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding.

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

## Appendix F

### Recovering & Not Recovering: Frequencies of Measures of Resources (Time, Income, and Civic Skills)

	Not Recovering (N=302)			Recovering (N=312)		
Resources	Mean - 11.25	SD - 4.03	Range 2-22	Mean - 11.53	SD - 4.47	Range 3-33
Time	Mean - 3.44	SD - 3.02	Range 0-15	Mean - 3.63	SD - 3.44	Range 0-22
Civic Skills	Mean - 3.84	SD - 2.19	Range 0-8	Mean - 3.80	SD - 2.19	Range 0-8
<b>Income</b>	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )			Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )		
Under \$15,000	5 (1.7%)			2 (.7%)		
\$15,000-34,999	29 (9.7%)			34 (11.5%)		
\$35,000-\$49,000	42 (14%)			51 (17.2%)		
\$50,000-\$74,999	82 (27.4%)			77 (26%)		
\$75,000-\$124,999	92 (30.8%)			90 (30.4%)		
Over \$125,000	49 (16.4%)			42 (14.2%)		
Missing	13			6		
<b>Civic Skills</b>						
Member of a religious institution						
Yes	172 (55.7%)			158 (52.3%)		
No	137 (44.3%)			144 (47.7%)		
Missing	3			0		
Active member of religious institution						
Yes	93 (54.3%)			79 (50.6%)		
No	79 (45.7%)			75 (49.4%)		
Missing	3			6		
Served as board member/officer in a religious institution						
Yes	79 (46.2%)			58 (37.4%)		
No	92 (53.8%)			97 (62.6%)		
Missing	4			3		
Charitable work in the community						
Yes	189 (60.6%)			203 (67.7%)		
No	123 (39.4%)			97 (32.3%)		
Missing	0			2		
Activities of job or organization:						
Written a letter						
Yes	196 (64.3%)			200 (32.2%)		
No	109 (35.7%)			95 (67.8%)		
Missing	7			7		
Made decisions in a meeting						
Yes	186 (61.2%)			180 (61.2%)		
No	118 (38.8%)			114 (38.8%)		
Missing	8			8		
Planned/chaired a meeting						
Yes	128 (42.2%)			129 (44.3%)		
No	175 (57.8%)			162 (55.7%)		
Missing	9			11		
Presentation or speech						
Yes	151 (49.7%)			154 (52.9%)		
No	153 (50.3%)			137 (47%)		
Missing	8			11		

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

## Appendix G

### Recovering & Not Recovering: Frequencies of Measures of Psychological Engagement (Political Interest, Political Information, & Political Efficacy)

	Not Recovering (N=302)	Recovering (N=312)
Psychological Engagement	Mean – 30.74 SD – 4.71 Range 17-35	Mean – 31.17 SD – 5.21 Range 12-41
Political Interest	Mean – 16.12 SD – 3.23 Range 7-17	Mean – 16.44 SD – 3.61 Range 5-17
Political Information	Mean – 4.50 SD – 1.11 Range 1-6	Mean – 4.57 SD – 1.09 Range 1-6
Political Efficacy	Mean – 10.13 SD – 2.11 Range 4-12	Mean – 10.12 SD – 2.21 Range 4-12

#### Political interest

	Not Recovering Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Recovering Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
Interest in national politics		
Very interested	190 (61.1%)	192 (64.4%)
Somewhat interested	97 (31.2%)	89 (29.9%)
Slightly interested	20 (6.4%)	13 (4.4%)
Not interested at all	4 (1.3%)	4 (1.3%)
Missing	1	4
Interest in local politics		
Very interested	114 (36.8%)	130 (43.5%)
Somewhat interested	138 (42.3%)	120 (40.1%)
Slightly interested	56 (15.8%)	41 (13.7%)
Not interested at all	2 (1.6%)	8 (2.7%)
Missing	2	3
Interest in public affairs		
Very interested	135 (43.8%)	148 (50%)
Somewhat interested	131 (42.5%)	107 (36.1%)
Slightly interested	35 (11.5%)	27 (9.1%)
Not interested at all	7 (2.3%)	14 (4.7%)
Missing	4	6
Discussion of National politics		
Daily	47 (15.3%)	51 (17.2%)
Nearly every day	74 (24%)	87 (29.4%)
Once or twice a week	115 (37.3%)	103 (34.8%)
Less than once a week	66 (21.4%)	46 (15.5%)
Never	6 (1.9%)	9 (3%)
Missing	4	6
Discussion of Local politics		
Daily	31 (10.1%)	35 (11.8%)
Nearly every day	55 (17.9%)	68 (22.9%)
Once or twice a week	111 (36.2%)	98 (33%)
Less than once a week	103 (33.6%)	82 (27.6%)
Never	7 (2.3%)	14 (4.7%)

Missing	5		5	
<b>Political efficacy</b>				
Attention to a national complaint				
A lot of attention	20 (6.4%)		19 (6.3%)	
Some attention	140 (44.9%)		134 (44.5%)	
Very little attention	134 (42.9%)		128 (42.5%)	
None	18 (5.8%)		20 (6.6%)	
Missing	0		1	
Attention to a local complaint				
A lot of attention	44 (14.1%)		41 (13.7%)	
Some attention	181 (58%)		173 (57.9%)	
Very little attention	76 (24.4%)		79 (26.4%)	
None	11 (3.5%)		6 (2%)	
Missing	0		3	
Influence over national politics				
A lot of influence	12 (3.9%)		15 (5%)	
Some influence	97 (31.3%)		92 (30.6%)	
Very little influence	155 (50%)		149 (49.5%)	
None	46 (14.8%)		45 (15%)	
Missing	2		1	
Influence over local politics				
A lot of influence	25 (8.1%)		27 (9%)	
Some influence	163 (52.9%)		147 (49%)	
Very little influence	99 (32.1%)		105 (35%)	
None	21 (6.8%)		21 (7%)	
Missing	4		2	
<b>Political information</b>				
	Correct	Incorrect	Correct	Incorrect
Social Security	124 (40.1%)	185 (59.9%)	145 (48.2%)	156 (51.8%)
Missing	3		1	
Fifth Amendment	195 (63.5%)	112 (36.5%)	196 (65.3%)	104 (34.7%)
Missing	5		2	
Civil liberties	279 (91.2%)	27 (8.8%)	272 (90.4%)	29 (9.6%)
Missing	6		1	
Democracy	308 (99%)	3 (1%)	288 (95.4%)	14 (4.6%)
Missing	1		0	
Legal age to vote	262 (84.8%)	47 (15.2%)	236 (78.4%)	65 (21.6%)
Missing	3		1	
US House majority	246 (79.4%)	64 (20.6%)	248 (82.7%)	52 (17.2%)
Missing	2		2	

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

Appendix H  
Recovering & Not Recovering: Frequencies of Measures of Recruitment Networks

Recruitment Networks	Not Recovering (N=302) Mean - 6.43 SD - 2.65 Range 1-13 Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Recovering (N=312) Mean - 6.74 SD - 2.67 Range 1-13 Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
Request to participate in a campaign:		
Yes	229 (73.6%)	228 (76%)
No	82 (26.4%)	72 (24%)
Missing	1	2
Frequency of requests:		
Once	174 (75.8%)	41 (18%)
More than Once	56 (24.2%)	188 (82%)
Missing	0	1
Request was from someone they knew personally		
Yes	60 (24.2%)	72 (28.6%)
No	188 (75.8%)	180 (71.4%)
Missing	64	50
Responded positively to request		
Yes	95 (38.8%)	116 (53.6%)
No	150 (61.2%)	134 (46.4%)
Missing	67	52
Authority w/in organization ever suggest you:		
Vote for a candidate		
Yes	81 (26.7%)	76 (25.8%)
No	222 (73.3%)	219 (72.2%)
Missing	9	7
Take other action on a political issue		
Yes	198 (67.3%)	211 (71.5%)
No	96 (32.7%)	84 (28.5%)
Missing	18	7
Meeting in religious institution about politics		
Yes	72 (23.2%)	69 (23.2%)
No	239 (76.8%)	230 (76.9%)
Missing	1	3
Religious institution ever suggest you vote for a candidate		
Yes	47 (15.6%)	49 (16.6%)
No	254 (84.4%)	246 (83.4%)
Missing	11	7
Requests to donate to political organization		
Weekly	124 (40.1%)	94 (31.3%)
Monthly	79 (25.6%)	111 (37%)
Rarely	96 (31.1%)	82 (27.3%)
Never	10 (3.2%)	13 (4.3%)
Missing	3	2
Sent money in response to request		
Yes	90 (29%)	109 (36.6%)
No	220 (71%)	189 (63.4%)
Missing	2	4

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item



## Appendix I

### Recovering and Not Recovering: Frequencies of Measures on Alcohol and Drug Policy

	Not Recovering (N=302)	Recovering (N=312)
	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
Obligation to Advocate for Alcohol and Other Drug Policy		
Yes		231 (77.0%)
No		49 (16.3%)
Unsure		20 (6.7%)
Missing		12
Focus of Policy		
More of a public safety issue	6 (2.0%)	6 (2.0%)
More of a public health issue	117 (38.1%)	130 (44.1%)
Equally between the two	147 (47.9%)	131 (44.4%)
Maintain current focus	37 (12.1%)	28 (9.5%)
Missing	5	7
Awareness of Nongovernmental Organizations Efforts to Influence AOD Policy		
Yes	196 (63.2%)	204 (67.8%)
No	114 (36.8%)	97 (32.2%)
Missing	2	1
Awareness of NAADAC Efforts to Influence AOD Policy		
Yes	273 (87.5%)	286 (94.7%)
No	39 (12.5%)	16 (5.3%)
Missing	0	0
Attended NAADAC Advocacy Conference		
Yes	37 (11.9%)	44 (14.8%)
No	274 (88.1%)	254 (85.2%)
Missing	1	4
Received an Advocacy Request from NAADAC		
Yes	175 (56.6%)	191 (63.7%)
No	134 (43.3%)	109 (36.3%)
Missing	3	2

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

Appendix J

Certification/Credentials: Characteristics

	Not Certified N=344 Frequency (%) <sup>a, b</sup>	Certified N=42 Frequency (%) <sup>a, b</sup>	Certified w/Profess. Credentials N=238 Frequency (%) <sup>a, b</sup>
Race/Ethnicity			
White	272 (83.4%)	36 (94.7%)	196 (89.1%)
African American	18 (5.3%)	2 (5.3%)	15 (6.8%)
Hispanic/Latino	17 (2.6%)	0	5 (2.3%)
American Indian	6 (1.7%)	0	3 (1.4%)
Asian Pacific Islander	3 (1%)	0	1 (.5%)
Missing	28	4	18
Gender			
Male	142 (43.6%)	20 (51.3%)	100 (44.4%)
Female	184 (56.4%)	19 (48.7%)	125 (55.6%)
Missing	18	3	13
Age			
Under 25	5 (1.5%)	1 (2.4%)	0
25-34	22 (6.6%)	1 (2.4%)	1 (.4%)
35-44	50 (15%)	3 (7.3%)	17 (7.4%)
45-54	119 (35.7%)	12 (29.3%)	64 (27.8%)
55-64	107 (32.1%)	19 (46.3%)	110 (47.8%)
65 and over	30 (9%)	5 (12.2%)	38 (16.5%)
Missing	11	1	8
Education			
Less than high school diploma	2 (.6%)	0	1 (.4%)
High school diploma/GED	8 (2.4%)	1 (2.4%)	2 (.9%)
Some college	45 (13.6%)	1 (34.122%)	21 (9.2%)
Bachelors degree	66 (19.9%)	9 (22%)	33 (14.4%)
Masters degree	184 (55.4%)	12 (29.3%)	148 (64.6%)
Ph.D/M.D./D.D.S./J.D.	27 (8.1%)	5 (12.2%)	24 (10.5%)
Missing	12	1	9
Ideology			
Republican	58 (18.9%)	9 (22%)	40 (17.6%)
Democrat	189 (55.8%)	24 (58.5%)	134 (59%)
Independent	71 (22.6%)	7 (17.1%)	48 (21.1%)
Libertarian	8 (2.7%)	1 (2.4%)	5 (2.2%)
Missing	18	1	11

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

Appendix K  
Certification/Credentials: Frequency of Measures of Political Participation

	Not Certified N=344		Certified N=42		Certified w/Profess. Credentials N=238	
	Mean 18.62 SD 5.44 Range 4-32		Mean 19.14 SD 5.69 Range 6-29		Mean 19.69 SD 5.06 Range 6-30	
	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )		Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )		Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	
	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)
Registered to vote	333 (97.1%)	10 (2.9%)	38 (92.7%)	3 (7.3%)	230 (98.3%)	4 (1.7%)
Missing	1		1		4	
Volunteered for a candidate	51 (14.8%)	293 (85.2%)	11 (26.8%)	30 (73.2%)	43 (18.1%)	195 (81.9%)
Missing	0		1		0	
Contributed to a campaign	145 (42.3%)	198 (57.7%)	24 (57.1%)	18 (42.9%)	116 (49.2%)	120 (50.8%)
Missing	1		0		2	
Volunteer within the community	94 (27.6%)	247 (72.4%)	13 (31%)	29 (69%)	72 (30.4%)	165 (69.6%)
Missing	3		0		1	
Attended a local board/council meeting	137 (39.8%)	207 (60.2%)	21 (50%)	21 (50%)	109 (45.8%)	129 (54.2%)
Missing	0		0		0	
Frequency of attendance	Regularly	Once in awhile	Regularly	Once in awhile	Regularly	Once in awhile
	37 (29.3%)	90 (70.7%)	2 (15.4%)	14 (84.6%)	28 (26.6%)	76 (73.4%)
Missing	10		5		5	
Informal work on community issue	216 (63%)	127 (37%)	26 (61.9%)	16 (38.1%)	162 (68.4%)	75 (31.6%)
Missing	1		0		1	
Contacted federal elected officials	211 (61.9%)	130 (38.1%)	23 (54.8%)	19 (45.2%)	162 (68.1%)	76 (31.9%)
Missing	3		0		0	
Contacted federal nonelected official	129 (37.5%)	215 (62.5%)	20 (47.6%)	22 (52.4%)	87 (36.9%)	149 (63.1%)
Missing	0		0		2	
Contacted state elected official	203 (59%)	141 (41%)	25 (59.5%)	17 (40.5%)	154 (65%)	83 (35%)
Missing	0		0		1	
Contacted state nonelected official	147 (42.9%)	196 (57.1%)	20 (52.4%)	22 (47.6%)	108 (46%)	127 (54%)
Missing	1		0		3	
Participated in a protest	63 (18.4%)	280 (81.6%)	6 (14.6%)	35 (85.4%)	52 (22.1%)	183 (77.9%)
Missing	1		1		3	
Member of a civic group	300 (87.2%)	44 (12.8%)	38 (90.5%)	4 (9.5%)	231 (97.1%)	7 (2.9%)

Missing	0			0			0	
Attended a meeting in last 12 months	252 (73.7%)	90 (26.3%)		32 (76.2%)	10 (23.8%)		186 (78.8%)	50 (21.2%)
Missing	2			0			2	
Political discussions on the agenda	178 (60.1%)	118 (39.9%)		20 (50%)	20 (50%)		151 (69.9%)	65 (30.1%)
Missing	48			2			22	
Chat informally about politics	254 (86.7%)	39 (13.3%)		32 (82.1%)	7 (17.9%)		196 (90.7%)	20 (9.3%)
Missing	51			3			22	
Active member in civic group	168 (66.9%)	83 (33.1%)		23 (71.9%)	9 (28.1%)		135 (72.2%)	52 (27.8%)
Missing	93			10			51	
Served as board member or officer	149 (58.9%)	104 (41.1%)		23 (71.9%)	9 (28.1%)		106 (57%)	80 (43%)
Missing	91			10 (not a duplication)			52	
Civic group takes public stand on issues	164 (66.1%)	84 (33.9%)		24 (75%)	8 (25%)		129 (71.3%)	52 (28.7%)
Missing	96			10			57	
Previous voting patterns	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )			Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )			Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	
Presidential elections								
All of them	216 (63%)			24 (57.1%)			156 (66.1%)	
Most of them	85 (24.8%)			11 (26.2%)			56 (23.7%)	
Some of them	27 (7.9%)			4 (8.5%)			18 (7.6%)	
Rarely voted in them	6 (1.7%)			1 (2.4%)			5 (2.1%)	
Never voted in them	9 (2.6%)			2 (4.8%)			1 (.4%)	
Missing	1			0			2	
Previous local elections								
All of them	67 (19.5%)			13 (31.0%)			66 (27.8%)	
Most of them	177 (51.5%)			13 (31.0%)			120 (50.6%)	
Some of them	71 (20.6%)			12 (28.6%)			39 (16.5%)	
Rarely voted in them	18 (5.2%)			3 (7.1%)			10 (4.2%)	
Never voted in them	11 (3.2%)			1 (2.4%)			2 (.8%)	
Missing	0			0			1	

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

# Appendix L

## Certification/Credentials: Frequencies of Measures of Resources (Time, Income, and Civic Skills)

	Not Certified (N=344)	Certified (N=42)	Certified w/Profess. Credentials (N=238)
Resources	Mean 11.08 SD 4.17 Range 0-29	Mean 11.00 SD 4.63 Range 6-29	Mean 11.42 SD 4.68 Range 1-33
Time	Mean 3.46 SD 3.16 Range 0-20	Mean 3.44 SD 3.26 Range 0-15	Mean 3.75 SD 5.06 Range 0-22
Civic Skills	Mean 3.82 SD 2.19 Range 0-8	Mean 3.81 SD 2.00 Range 0-8	Mean 3.72 SD 2.21 Range 0-8
<b>Income</b>	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
Under \$15,000	3 (.9%)	1 (2.4%)	3 (1.4%)
\$15,000-\$34,999	43 (13.1%)	3 (7.3%)	18 (8.1%)
\$35,000-\$49,000	54 (16.4%)	13 (31.7%)	26 (11.8%)
\$50,000-\$74,999	92 (28%)	10 (24.4%)	56 (25.3%)
\$75,000-\$124,999	85 (25.8%)	10 (24.4%)	86 (38.9%)
Over \$125,000	52 (15.8%)	4 (9.8%)	32 (14.5%)
Missing	15	1	17
<b>Civic Skills</b>			
Member of a religious institution			
Yes	106 (54%)	22 (53.8%)	127 (53.6%)
No	157 (46%)	19 (46.2%)	110 (46.4%)
Missing	3	1	1
Active member of religious institution			
Yes	106 (57.3%)	13 (55.3%)	59 (46.8%)
No	79 (42.7%)	11 (47.7%)	67 (53.2%)
Missing	2	0	2
Served as board member/officer in a religious institution			
Yes	83 (45.1%)	11 (47.8%)	44 (35.5%)
No	101 (54.9%)	12 (52.2%)	80 (64.5%)
Missing	3	19	4
Charitable work in the community			
Yes	222 (64.7%)	27 (65.9%)	151 (63.4%)
No	121 (35.3%)	14 (34.1%)	87 (36.6%)
Missing	1	1	0
Activities of job or organization:			
Written a letter			
Yes	218 (65.9%)	21 (52.5%)	155 (66.0%)

No	113 (34.1%)	19 (47.5%)	80 (34.0%)
Missing	13	2	3
Made decisions in a meeting			
Yes	199 (60.1%)	26 (65%)	139 (59.7%)
No	132 (39.9%)	14 (35%)	94 (40.3%)
Missing	13	2	5
Planned/chaired a meeting			
Yes	143 (43.6%)	16 (40%)	97 (41.8%)
No	185 (56.4%)	24 (60%)	135 (58.2%)
Missing	16	2	6
Presentation or speech			
Yes	168 (48.8%)	24 (60%)	116 (49.8%)
No	160 (51.2%)	16 (40%)	117 (50.2%)
Missing	16	2	5

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<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

## Appendix M

### Certification/Credentials: Frequencies of Measures of Psychological Engagement (Political Interest, Political Information, & Political Efficacy)

	Not Certified (N=344)	Certified (N=42)	Certified w/Profess. Credentials (N=238)
<b>Psychological Engagement</b>			
	Mean 30.42, SD 4.73, Range 12-35	Mean 32.14, SD 4.55, Range 21-35	Mean 31.23, SD 4.88, Range 15-35
Political Interest	Mean 15.98, SD 3.46, Range 5-17	Mean 16.79, SD 2.62, Range 11-17	Mean 16.53, SD 3.50, Range 7-17
Political Information	Mean 4.48, SD 1.14, Range 1-6	Mean 4.43, SD 1.15, Range 1-6	Mean 4.59, SD 1.02, Range 1-6
Political Efficacy	Mean 10.04, SD 2.19, Range 4-12	Mean 10.74, SD 2.25, Range 6-12	Mean 10.15, SD 2.11, Range 4-12
<b>Political interest</b>	<b>Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup>)</b>	<b>Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup>)</b>	<b>Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup>)</b>
Interest in national politics			
Very interested	204 (59.8%)	28 (66.7%)	155 (66%)
Somewhat interested	110 (32.3%)	13 (31%)	67 (28.5%)
Slightly interested	19 (5.6%)	1 (2.4%)	13 (5.5%)
Not interested at all	8 (2.3%)	0	0
Missing	3	0	3
Interest in local politics			
Very interested	127 (37.5%)	19 (45.2%)	104 (44.1%)
Somewhat interested	142 (41.9%)	20 (47.6%)	99 (41.9%)
Slightly interested	63 (18.6%)	3 (7.1%)	30 (12.7%)
Not interested at all	7 (2.1%)	0	3 (1.3%)
Missing	5	0	2
Interest in public Affairs			
Very interested	149 (44.1%)	22 (52.4%)	114 (49.1%)
Somewhat interested	141 (41.7%)	13 (31%)	88 (37.9%)
Slightly interested	38 (11.2%)	4 (9.5%)	22 (9.5%)
Not interested at all	10 (3%)	3 (7.1%)	8 (3.4%)
Missing	6	0	6
Discussion of National politics			
Daily	47 (13.9%)	6 (14.3%)	44 (19%)
Nearly every day	85 (25.1%)	11 (26.2%)	67 (28.9%)

Once or twice a week	131 (38.8%)	19 (45.2%)	70 (30.2%)
Less than once a week	66 (19.5%)	5 (11.9%)	46 (19.8%)
Never	9 (2.7%)	1 (2.4%)	5 (2.2%)
Missing	6	0	6
Discussion of Local politics			
Daily	29 (8.6%)	3 (7.1%)	34 (14.7%)
Nearly every day	67 (19.8%)	10 (23.8%)	50 (21.6%)
Once or twice a week	117 (34.6%)	18 (42.9%)	74 (31.9%)
Less than once a week	110 (32.5%)	10 (23.8%)	68 (29.3%)
Never	15 (4.4%)	1 (2.4%)	6 (2.6%)
Missing	6	0	6
<b>Political efficacy</b>	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
Attention to a national complaint			
A lot of attention	23 (6.7%)	17 (6.1%)	13 (5.5%)
Some attention	149 (43.6%)	130 (46.8%)	106 (44.7%)
Very little attention	143 (41.8%)	118 (42.4%)	105 (44.3%)
None	27 (7.9%)	13 (4.7%)	13 (5.5%)
Missing	2	2	1
Attention to a local complaint			
A lot of attention	41 (12.1%)	44 (15.8%)	32 (13.5%)
Some attention	200 (58.8%)	160 (57.3%)	140 (59.1%)
Very little attention	88 (25.9%)	69 (24.7%)	61 (25.7%)
None	11 (3.2%)	6 (2.2%)	4 (1.7%)
Missing	4	1	1
Influence over national politics			
A lot of influence	18 (5.3%)	9 (3.2%)	8 (3.4%)
Some influence	96 (28.2%)	97 (34.8%)	75 (31.6%)
Very little influence	174 (51.2%)	132 (47.3%)	120 (50.6%)
None	52 (15.3%)	41 (14.7%)	34 (14.3%)
Missing	4	1	1
Influence over local politics			
A lot of influence	30 (8.8%)	23 (8.3%)	19 (8.1%)
Some influence	165 (48.7%)	150 (54.2%)	127 (53.8%)
	178		



Very little influence	120 (35.4%)	86 (31.0%)	75 (31.8%)
None	24 (7.1%)	18 (6.5%)	15 (6.4%)
Missing	5	3	2
<b>Political information</b>	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
	Correct Incorrect	Correct Incorrect	Correct Incorrect
Social Security	147 (43.1%) 194 (56.4%)	21 (50%) 21 (50%)	102 (43.2%) 134 (56.8%)
Missing	3	0	2
Fifth Amendment	219 (64.2%) 122 (35.8%)	25 (59.5%) 17 (40.5%)	149 (63.9%) 84 (36.1%)
Missing	3	0	5
Civil liberties	298 (88.2%) 40 (11.8%)	36 (85.7%) 6 (14.3%)	225 (95.3%) 11 (4.7%)
Missing	6	0	2
Democracy	333 (97.4%) 9 (2.6%)	41 (97.6%) 1 (2.4%)	230 (97.0%) 7 (3.0%)
Missing	2	0	1
Legal age to vote	286 (84.6%) 52 (15.4%)	32 (76.2%) 10 (23.8%)	187 (78.9%) 50 (21.1%)
Missing	6	0	1
US House majority	261 (77%) 78 (23%)	34 (81%) 8 (19%)	205 (86.9%) 31 13.1%)
Missing	5	0	2

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

# Appendix N

## Certification/Credentials: Frequencies of Measures of Recruitment Networks

	Not Certified (N=344)	Certified (N=42)	Certified w/Profess. Credentials (N=238)
<b>Recruitment Networks</b>	Mean 6.29, SD 2.74, Range 1-13	Mean 6.69, SD 2.46, Range 1-12	Mean 6.85, SD 2.59, Range 1-12
Request to participate in a campaign:	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
Yes	243 (71.7%)	27 (65.9%)	191 (80.3%)
No	96 (28.3%)	14 (34.1%)	47 (19.7%)
Missing	5	1	0
Frequency of requests:			
Once	43 (17.8%)	7 (26.7%)	46 (24%)
More than Once	203 (82.2%)	21 (73.3%)	145 (76%)
Missing	2	0	0
Request was from someone they knew personally			
Yes	74 (27.4%)	9 (34.4%)	44 (24%)
No	166 (72.6%)	18 (65.6%)	138 (76%)
Missing	7	1	9
Responded positively to request			
Yes	107 (43.3%)	12 (48.5%)	71 (40.7%)
No	140 (56.7%)	13 (51.5%)	104 (59.3%)
Missing	0	3	16
Authority w/in organization ever suggest you vote for a candidate			
Yes	85 (25.5%)	13 (31%)	61 (26.6%)
No	248 (74.5%)	29 (69%)	168 (73.04%)
Missing	11	0	9
Authority w/in organization ever suggest you take other action on a political issue			
Yes	218 (67.7%)	30 (73.2%)	163 (70.9%)
No	104 (32.3%)	11 (26.8%)	67 (29.1%)
Missing	22	1	8
Meeting in religious institution about politics			
Yes	72 (21.1%)	9 (21.4%)	59 (25.2%)
No	269 (78.9%)	33 (78.6%)	175 (74.8%)

Missing	3	0	4
Religious institution ever suggest you vote for a candidate			
Yes	55 (16.7%)	7 (17.1%)	35 (15.2%)
No	275 (83.3%)	34 (82.9%)	196 (84.8%)
Missing	14	1	7
Requests to donate to political organization			
Weekly	104 (30.5%)	12 (28.6%)	101 (43.0%)
Monthly	108 (31.7%)	15 (35.7%)	70 (29.8%)
Rarely	114 (33.4%)	12 (28.6%)	58 (24.7%)
Never	15 (4.4%)	3 (7.1%)	6 (2.6%)
Missing	3	0	3
Sent money in response to request			
Yes	91 (26.8%)	17 (40.5%)	88 (37.3%)
No	249 (73.2%)	25 (59.5%)	148 (62.7%)
Missing	4	0	2

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<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

# Appendix O

## Certification/Credentials: Alcohol and Drug Policy

	Not Certified (N=344) Number (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Certified (N=42) Number (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Certified w/ Credentials (N=238) Number (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
Recovering	161 (51.5%)	27 (65.9%)	112 (48.1%)
Not Recovering	171 (48.5%)	14 (34.1%)	121 (50.8%)
Missing	12	1	5
Obligation to Advocate for Alcohol and Other Drug Policy			
Yes	122 (75.6%)	20 (76.9%)	79 (70.4%)
No	18 (11.1%)	2 (7.7%)	25 (22.4%)
Unsure	21 (13.3%)	4 (15.4%)	8 (7.2%)
Missing	12	2	5
Focus of Policy			
More of a public safety issue	6 (1.8%)	1 (2.4%)	5 (2.2%)
More of a public health issue	149 (44.2%)	14 (34.2%)	85 (36.6%)
Equally between the two	149 (44.2%)	23 (56.1%)	111 (47.8%)
Maintain current focus	33 (9.8%)	3 (7.3%)	31 (13.4%)
Missing	7	1	6
Awareness of Nongovernmental Organizations Efforts to Influence AOD Policy			
Yes	214 (62.4%)	27 (64.3%)	167 (70.8%)
No	129 (37.6%)	15 (35.7%)	69 (29.2%)
Missing	1	0	2
Awareness of NAADAC Efforts to Influence AOD Policy			
Yes	303 (88.1%)	38 (90.5%)	227 (95.4%)
No	41 (11.9%)	4 (9.5%)	11 (4.6%)
Missing	0	0	0
Attended NAADAC Advocacy Conference			
Yes	42 (12.3%)	10 (24.4%)	30 (12.7%)
No	300 (87.7%)	31 (75.6%)	206 (86.9%)
Missing	2	1	2
Received an Advocacy Request from NAADAC			
Yes	177 (51.9%)	29 (70.7%)	158 (66.7%)
No	164 (48.1%)	12 (29.3%)	79 (33.3%)
Missing	3	1	1

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding; <sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

## Appendix P

### Social Workers: Characteristics

	Not Social Workers N=544	Social Workers N=89
Race/Ethnicity	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
White	435 (87.5%)	73 (90.1%)
African American	30 (6%)	4 (6.2%)
Hispanic/Latino	21 (4.2%)	1 (1.2%)
American Indian	9 (1.8%)	0
Asian Pacific Islander	2 (.4%)	2 (2.5%)
Missing	47	9
Gender		
Male	226 (44.1%)	38 (46.9%)
Female	287 (55.9%)	43 (53.1%)
Missing	31	8
Age		
Under 25	5 (1.0%)	1 (1.2%)
25-34	19 (3.6%)	5 (5.8%)
35-44	62 (11.9%)	8 (9.3%)
45-54	161 (30.8%)	33 (38.4%)
55-64	208 (39.8%)	30 (34.9%)
65 and over	67 (12.8%)	9 (10.5%)
Missing	22	3
Education		
Less than high school diploma	3 (.6%)	0
High school diploma/GED	11(2.1%)	0
Some college	79(15.2%)	1 (1.2%)
Bachelors degree	98 (18.8%)	10 (11.8%)
Masters degree	279 (53.6%)	68 (80%)
Ph.D/M.D./D.D.S./J.D.	51(9.8%)	6 (7.1%)
Missing	23	4
Ideology		
Republican	97 (18.9%)	10 (11.8%)
Democrat	286 (55.8%)	65 (76.5%)
Independent	116 (22.6%)	10 (11.8%)
Libertarian	14 (2.7%)	0
Missing	31	4

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

Appendix Q  
Social Workers: Measures of Political Participation

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Political Participation	Not Social Workers N=544 Mean 19.06, SD 5.30, Range 4-32		Social Workers N=89 Mean 19.07, SD 5.50 Range 7-30	
	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )		Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Registered to vote	521 (97.4%)	14 (2.6%)	85 (96.6%)	3 (3.4%)
Missing data	9		1	
Volunteered for a candidate	90 (16.7%)	449 (83.3%)	15 (16.9%)	74 (83.1%)
Missing	5		0	
Contributed to a campaign	243 (45.3%)	294 (54.7%)	47 (52.8%)	42 (47.2%)
Missing	7		0	
Volunteers within the community	159 (29.7%)	377 (70.3%)	20 (22.5%)	69 (77.5%)
Missing	8		0	
Attended a local board/council meeting	237 (43.9%)	303 (56.1%)	34 (38.2%)	55 (61.8%)
Missing	4		0	
Frequency of attendance	Regularly	Once in Awhile		
	63 (26.4%)	177 (73.6%)	8 (23.7%)	26 (76.3%)
Missing	1		0	
Informal work on community issue	354 (64.8%)	184 (34.2%)	52 (58.4%)	37 (41.6%)
Missing	6		0	
Contacted federal elected officials	337 (62.8%)	200 (37.2%)	60 (67.4%)	29 (32.6%)
Missing	7		0	
Contacted federal nonelected official	297 (36.5%)	342 (63.5%)	39 (44.3%)	49 (55.7%)
Missing	5		1	
Contacted state elected official	329 (61%)	210 (39%)	53 (59.6%)	36 (40.4%)
Missing	5		0	
Contacted state nonelected official	238 (44.3%)	299 (55.7%)	38 (43.2%)	50 (56.8%)
Missing	7		1	
Participated in a protest	102 (19.1%)	433 (80.9%)	19 (21.3%)	70 (78.7%)
Missing	9		0	
Member of a civic group	492 (91.1%)	48 (8.9%)	82 (92.1%)	7 (7.9%)
Missing	4		0	
Attended a meeting in last 12 months	413 (76.5%)	123 (22.9%)	60 (67.4%)	29 (32.6%)
Missing	8		0	
Political discussions on the agenda	298 (62.3%)	180 (37.7%)	55 (72.4%)	21 (27.6%)
Missing	66		13	
Chat informally about politics	418 (88.4%)	55 (11.6%)	67 (87.0%)	10 (13.0%)
Missing	71		12	
Active member in civic group	286 (69.1%)	128 (30.9%)	41 (69.5%)	18 (30.5%)
Missing	130		30	
Served as board member or officer	241 (58.1%)	174 (41.9%)	36 (61.0%)	23 (39.0%)
Missing	129		30	
Civic group takes public stand on issues	274 (67.5%)	132 (32.5%)	44 (75.9%)	14 (24.1%)
Missing	138		31	
Previous voting patterns	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )		Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	
Presidential elections				
All of them	336	(62.6%)	65	(73%)
Most of them	134	(25.0%)	18	(20.2%)
Some of them	48	(8.9%)	1	(1.1%)
Rarely voted in them	10	(1.8%)	2	(2.2%)

Never voted in them	9 (1.7%)	3 (3.4%)
Missing	7	0
Previous local elections		
All of them	130 (24.1%)	20 (22.5%)
Most of them	261 (48.4%)	51 (57.3%)
Some of them	109 (20.3%)	12 (13.5%)
Rarely voted in them	27 (5.0%)	4 (4.5%)
Never voted in them	12 (2.2%)	2 (2.2%)
Missing	5	0

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<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

Appendix R  
Social Workers: Frequencies of Measures of Resources (Time, Income, and Civic Skills)

	Social Workers (N=89)	Not Social Workers (N=544)
Resources	Mean 11.31, SD – 5.11, Range 0-33	Mean 11.21SD 4.30, Range 0-29
Time	Mean 3.72,, SD – 3.80, Range 0-22	Mean 3.57, SD 3.19, Range 0-20
Civic Skills	Mean 3.32, SD - 2.11, Range 0-8	Mean 3.86, SD 2.18, Range 0-8
<b>Income</b>		
	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
Under \$15,000	1 (1.2%)	6 (1.2%)
\$15,000-34,999	4 (4.7)	59 (11.6%)
\$35,000-\$49,000	12 (14%)	82 (16.1%)
\$50,000-\$74,999	22 (25.6%)	138 (27.1%)
\$75,000-\$124,999	27 (31.4%)	154 (30.3%)
Over \$125,000	20 (23.3%)	70 (13.8%)
Missing	3	35
<b>Civic Skills</b>		
Member of a religious institution		
Yes	38 (43.2%)	300 (55.9%)
No	50 (56.8%)	237 (44.1%)
Missing	1	7
Active member of religious institution		
Yes	22 (56.4%)	158 (52.8%)
No	17 (43.6%)	141 (47.2%)
Missing	0	8
Served as board member/officer in a religious institution		
Yes	17 (56.4%)	123 (41.6%)
No	22 (43.6%)	173 (58.4%)
Missing	0	11
Charitable work in the community		
Yes	49 (55.1%)	353 (65.6%)
No	40 (44.9%)	185 (34.4%)
Missing	0	6
Activities of job or organization:		
Written a letter		
Yes	55 (65.5%)	344 (65.3%)
No	29 (34.5%)	183 (34.7%)
Missing	5	17
Made decisions in a meeting		
Yes	49 (57%)	319 (61%)
No	37 (43%)	204 (39%)
Missing	3	21
Planned/chaired a meeting		
Yes	34 (40.5%)	224 (43%)
No	50 (59.5%)	297 (57%)
Missing	5	23
Presentation or speech		
Yes	39 (45.3%)	269 (51.7%)
No	47 (54.7%)	251 (48.3%)
Missing	3	24

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item



## Appendix S

### Social Workers: Frequencies of Measures of Psychological Engagement (Political Interest, Political Information, and Political Efficacy)

	Social Workers (N=89)	Not Social Workers (N=544)
<b>Psychological Engagement</b>		
	Mean 31.49, SD 4.73, Range 16-29	Mean 30.71, SD 5.12, Range 12-35
Political Interest	Mean 16.84, SD 3.06, Range 10-17	Mean 16.13, SD 3.48, Range 5-17
Political Information	Mean 4.58, SD 1.20, Range 2-6	Mean 4.51, SD 1.08, Range 1-6
Political Efficacy	Mean 10.24, SD 1.90, Range 5-12	Mean 10.10, SD 2.21, Range 4-12
<b>Political interest</b>		
Interest in national politics	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )
Very interested	61 (68.5%)	329 (61.6%)
Somewhat interested	27 (30.3%)	165 (30.9%)
Slightly interested	1 (1.1)	32 (6.0%)
Not interested at all	0	8 (1.5%)
Missing		10
Interest in local politics		
Very interested	39 (44.3%)	212 (39.7%)
Somewhat interested	32 (36.4%)	231 (43.3%)
Slightly interested	17 (19.3%)	81 (15.2%)
Not interested at all	0	10 (1.9%)
Missing	1	10
Interest in public Affairs		
Very interested	45 (51.1%)	242 (45.7%)
Somewhat interested	36 (40.9%)	207 (39.1%)
Slightly interested	6 (6.8%)	60 (11.3%)
Not interested at all	1 (1.1%)	20 (3.8%)
Missing	1	15
Discussion of National politics		
Daily	21 (23.6%)	77 (14.6%)
Nearly every day	22 (24.7%)	142 (26.9%)
Once or twice a week	31 (34.8%)	191 (36.2%)
Less than once a week	14 (15.7%)	104 (19.7%)
Never	1 (1.1%)	14 (2.7%)
Missing		
Discussion of Local politics		
Daily	10 (11.2%)	56 (10.6%)
Nearly every day	16 (18.0%)	110 (20.8%)
Once or twice a week	36 (40.4%)	175 (33.1%)
Less than once a week	25 (28.1%)	167 (31.6%)
Never	2 (2.2%)	20 (3.8%)
Missing	0	16
<b>Political efficacy</b>		
	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )

Attention to a national complaint				
A lot of attention	3 (3.4%)		36 (6.7%)	
Some attention	46 (52.3%)		238 (44.3%)	
Very little attention	37 (42%)		224 (41.7%)	
None	2 (2.3%)		39 (7.3%)	
Missing	1		7	
Attention to a local complaint				
A lot of attention	10 (11.4%)		75 (13.9%)	
Some attention	57 (64.8 %)		306 (57.1%)	
Very little attention	20 (22.7 %)		138 (25.7%)	
None	1 (1.1 %)		17 (3.2%)	
Missing	1		8	
Influence over national politics				
A lot of influence	5 (5.7%)		21(3.9%)	
Some influence	24 (27.3%)		172 (32.1%)	
Very little influence	49 (55.7%)		259 (48.3%)	
None	10 (11.4%)		84 (15.7%)	
Missing	1		8	
Influence over local politics				
A lot of influence	7 (8%)		45 (8.4%)	
Some influence	42 (47.7%)		274 (51.4%)	
Very little influence	35 (39.8%)		175 (32.8%)	
None	4 (4.5%)		39 (7.3%)	
Missing	1		11	
<b>Political information</b>				
	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )		Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	
	Correct	Incorrect	Correct	Incorrect
Social Security	44 (50.6%)	43 (49.4%)	229 (42.6%)	308 (57.4%)
Missing	2		7	
Fifth Amendment	57 (66.3%)	29 (33.7%)	338 (63.2%)	197 (36.8%)
Missing	3		9	
Civil liberties	77 (89.5%)	9 (10.5%)	487 (91%)	48 (9%)
Missing	3		9	
Democracy	88 (98.9%)	0	521 (96.8%)	17 (3.2%)
Missing	1		6	
Legal age to vote	68 (83.7%)	18 (16.3%)	441 (82.3%)	95 (17.7%)
Missing	3		8	
US House majority	72 (80.9%)	14 (15.7%)	431 (80.4%)	105 (19.6%)
Missing	3		8	

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

## Appendix T

### Social Workers: Frequencies of Measures of Recruitment Network

		Social Workers (N=89)	Not Social Workers (n=544)
Recruitment networks		Mean 6.89, SD 2.83, Range 1-12	Mean 6.49, SD 2.66, Range 01-14
Request to participate in a campaign:	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	Frequency (% <sup>a, b</sup> )	
Yes	68 (78.2%)	396 (73.9%)	
No	19 (21.8%)	140 (26.1%)	
Missing	2	8	
Frequency of requests:			
Once	14 (20.6%)	85 (21%)	
More than Once	54 (79.4%)	319 (79%)	
Missing	2	0	
Request was from someone they knew personally			
Yes	19 (27.4%)	105 (25.9%)	
No	51 (72.6%)	299 (74.1%)	
Missing	0	0	
Responded positively to request			
Yes	33 (46.5%)	162 (41.7%)	
No	37 (53.5%)	226 (58.3%)	
Missing	0	16	
Authority w/in organization ever suggest you vote for a candidate			
Yes	29 (33.7%)	134 (25.6%)	
No	57 (66.3%)	389 (74.4%)	
Missing	3	21	
Authority w/in organization ever suggest you take other action on a political issue			
Yes	58 (71.6%)	356 (68.9%)	
No	23 (28.4%)	161 (31.1%)	
Missing	8 (9%)	27	
Meeting in religious institution about politics			
Yes	18 (20.7%)	127 (23.7%)	
No	69 (79.3%)	408 (76.3%)	
Missing	2	9	
Religious institution ever suggest you vote for a candidate			
Yes	11 (13.6%)	87 (76.8%)	
No	70 (86.4%)	439 (83.5%)	
Missing	8	18	
Requests to donate to political organization			
Weekly	44 (50.6%)	179 (33.4%)	
Monthly	16 (18.4%)	177 (33%)	
Rarely	23 (26.4%)	160 (29.9%)	
Never	4 (4.6%)	20 (3.7%)	
Missing	2	8	
Sent money in response to request			
Yes	39 (43.8%)	161 (30.1%)	
No	50 (56.2%)	373 (69.9%)	
Missing	0	10	

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

## Appendix U

### Social Workers: Recovery Status and Alcohol and Other Drug Policy

	Social Workers (N=89) Frequency (%) <sup>a, b</sup>	Not Social Workers (N=544) Frequency (%) <sup>a, b</sup>
Recovering	32 (37.2%)	269 (51.3%)
Not Recovering	45 (52.3%)	228 (43.5%)
Prefer not to Respond	9 (10.5%)	27 (5.2%)
Missing	3	20
Obligation to Advocate for Alcohol and Other Drug Policy		
Yes	28 (75.7%)	212 (73.9%)
No	5 (13.5%)	53 (18.5%)
Unsure	4 (10.8%)	22 (7.7%)
Missing	7	29
Focus of Policy		
More of a public safety issue	0	12 (2.3%)
More of a public health issue	38 (44.1%)	212 (40.3%)
Equally between the two	38 (44.4%)	248 (47.1%)
Maintain current focus	13 (9.5%)	54 (10.3%)
Missing	0	18
Awareness of Nongovernmental Organizations Efforts to Influence AOD Policy		
Yes	49 (55.7%)	361 (67.1%)
No	39 (44.3%)	177 (32.9%)
Missing	1	6
Awareness of NAADAC Efforts to Influence AOD Policy		
Yes	80 (89.9%)	493 (91.3%)
No	9 (10.1%)	47 (8.7%)
Missing	0	4
Attended NAADAC Advocacy Conference		
Yes	11 (12.5%)	71 (13.2%)
No	77 (87.5%)	465 (86.8%)
Missing	1	8
Received an Advocacy Request from NAADAC		
Yes	52 (59.8%)	318 (59.2%)
No	35 (40.2%)	219 (40.8%)
Missing	2	7

<sup>a</sup> Percents may not add to 100 due to rounding

<sup>b</sup> Percents are based on the number who responded to the item

# Appendix V

Pearson Correlation Coefficients  
 Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0  
 Number of observations

	ResIndex	PEIndex	RNIndex	Recover	Lic	Age	Gender	Race
ResIndex ResIndex	1.00000 633							
PEIndex PEIndex	0.24588 <.0001 633	1.00000 633						
RNIndex RNIndex	0.28208 <.0001 633	0.46297 <.0001 633	1.00000 633					
Recover Recover	-0.06449 0.1104 614	-0.04243 0.2939 614	-0.07337 0.0692 614	1.00000 614				
Lic Lic	-0.07321 0.0656 633	-0.03551 0.3724 633	-0.07926 0.0462 633	-0.05094 0.2075 614	1.00000 633			
Age Age	0.19890 <.0001 612	0.23009 <.0001 612	0.24395 <.0001 612	-0.13922 0.0006 607	-0.10510 0.0093 612	1.00000 612		
Gender Gender	-0.17751 <.0001 598	-0.18118 <.0001 598	-0.12934 0.0015 598	0.17257 <.0001 594	0.00123 0.9761 598	-0.17301 <.0001 595	1.00000 598	
Race Race	-0.01290 0.7561 582	-0.06485 0.1181 582	-0.04988 0.2295 582	-0.01547 0.7105 578	-0.05299 0.2017 582	-0.08856 0.0331 579	-0.01696 0.6871 566	1.00000 582

Appendix W  
Frequencies of Membership in Civic and Professional Groups (N=633)

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Type of group	Number (%)
Professional Association	440 (69.4%)
Educational Institution	213 (33.6%)
Neighborhood Association	179 (28.3%)
Social Service Organization	171 (27%)
Issue Based	158 (25%)
Hobby Sports	147 (23.3%)
Elderly Senior Citizens	140 (22.1%)
Public Cultural	133 (21%)
Literary, Art Discussion	108 (17.1%)
Political Party	106 (16.7%)
Service Club/Fraternal Organization	90 (14.2%)
Research Health related	85 (13.5%)
Religious	71 (11.2%)
Gay/Lesbian	63 (10%)
Liberal conservative cause	57 (10%)
Women's Rights	63 (9.9%)
Labor Union	56 (8.8%)
Veterans	55 (8.5%)
Ethnic/Nationality	50 (7.9%)
Youth group	45 (7.1%)
Nonpartisan Civic	34 (5.3%)

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## Vita

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